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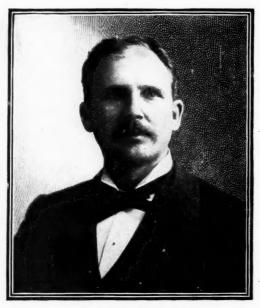
THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The year 1906 dawns upon a world Peace Among the Tribes in which peace once more predomithe Tribes in which peace once and Nations. nates. The great war in the far East, with its amazing succession of events, made 1904 and 1905 very memorable years in military annals. But it came to an end through a treaty drawn up and signed in this country, under the auspices of our government, last summer. England has no "little wars" on hand just now. The Germans, according to reports last month, had quelled the revolt of native tribes in Southwest Africa, and that protracted affair had seemed to be the only war, great or small, that was likely to carry over into the new year as an exception to the rule of peace. More serious and more formidable, however, than many an armed conflict between nations has proved to be is the great social and political upheaval in Russia. Thus far, it has been disorder on a vast scale rather than civil war. What may come of it all during the year 1906 no man can predict, even from one day to another, with any degree of intelligence. There will emerge some kind of representative government, but there will be anxious times in Russia for many months to come.

Some Recent In England, the close of the year 1905 has witnessed the long-expected retirement of Mr. Balfour's Conservative ministry and the formation of a successful Liberal administration under the premiership of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. Nothing important, however, will be attempted by this ministry until there has been a new Parliamentary election, which will occur early in the present year. The most important event of the past year for the people of France has been the separation of Church and State, which goes into effect, under the law, on the 1st of January. Germany has been active during the past year in strengthening its international position, and its chief contribution to history, perhaps, has been its interference in the affairs of Morocco.

Meanwhile, the German Emperor has made notable approaches toward more intimate relations with Russia, while the good understanding between England and France has steadily grown. The shifting of real international relations, irrespective of formal alliances, has been of such a nature as to make for permanent peace rather than for menace among the great powers of Europe. The last weeks of the year have been marked by the cooperation of the great European powers in bringing pressure upon the Sultan of Turkey to put into effect governmental reforms in Macedonia.

In this country, the great event of Conditions in This Country. the year was the entrance of President Roosevelt upon his new term of office, with an influence that was effective in bringing Russia and Japan to an agreement at Portsmouth, that subsequently brought the Southern States into a friendly attitude toward the administration, and that finally showed itself in the reform wave that swept the country in the November elections. Recent years have witnessed in this country an industrial progress far beyond anything the world had ever known. So rapid a growth of industry and wealth was inevitably attended by many evils. The exposure of these evils and the attempt to remedy them have passed over to the year 1906 as "unfinished business" from the year that lies behind us. The recent campaign attack upon the control of politics by corporations through the boss system will be continued this year, and will make itself felt in the State and Congressional elections next November. The investigation carried on by the Armstrong legislative committee in New York into the methods of the large insurance companies will merely have pointed the way to many other inquiries and exposures that must take place before the fight against corporation control of our government and politics can be fairly won. The separation of Norway and Sweden is



HON. EDWARD L. HAMILTON.
(Chairman House Committee on Territories.)

an interesting event of the year 1905, but it has not nearly so much significance in the field of actual politics and government as the election of Mr. Jerome in New York or the overthrow of the machine in Philadelphia.

This winter, the focus of American A Critical activity and attention in public af-Washington. fairs will be at Washington. At a moment when reform movements in the States and the large cities were never more successful, it happens that the situation at Washington has seldom been more serious. It may be said with some caution, but with probable truth, that at no time for twenty years past have lobby interests been so powerful and at the same time so insidious at Washington as in the present legislative season. The great corporations propose to thwart the President's plans for the more effective regulation of railways. For various reasons, they propose to obstruct the Govern ment's policy in the matter of the Panama Canal. They are bent upon preventing the passage of the Statehood bill that would unite New Mexico and Arizona and admit them as a single commonwealth. It is well for the people of the country to know that such influences are at work, and to do all they can to see that their own representatives are not captured by the lobbyists. The situation is an unusual one in many respects, and a very difficult one to deal with.

Thus, President Roosevelt recom-A Powerful mends the immediate admission of Oklahoma and Indian Territory as one State, and of Arizona and New Mexico as another. This question has been fully and thoroughly considered from every standpoint of statesmanship and public policy, and the President's recommendation ought to be adopted. The opposition comes from great corporations, principally mining companies in Arizona, supported by railroad corporations. These Arizona mining companies own property worth hundreds of millions of dollars upon which they pay practically no taxes at all. They seem to be able to control Arizona for their own ends. But if Arizona were united with New Mexico they would be in danger of losing control, and might be subjected to something like reasonable taxa-They can array immense influences in roundabout and unsuspected ways, and they can afford to spend a fabulous sum of money to defeat the pending Statehood bill. It is to be feared that there have been attempts to influence members of Congress in this Arizona situation by the gift of mining stocks and like improper methods. If the joint Statehood bill is defeated now, the lobbyists will go on with their work, hoping to seize a favorable moment in the future for admitting Arizona and New Mexico as two States. The safer and better way is to close the business now by passing the joint Statehood bill. The Hon. Edward L. Hamilton, of Michigan, chairman of the House Committee on Territories, has been working for the joint Statehood measure with the earnest backing of Speaker Cannon; while Senator Beveridge, chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories, has led the fight for sound public policy with a courage and a devotion to what he deems the best interests



A LETTER TO SANTA CLAUS. From the Post-Intelligencer (Seattle).

of the country that are not as yet fully appreciated. It would be much easier to be lukewarm than to be zealous as against those influences that are now at work to defeat the Statehood bill. To Senator Beveridge's lasting credit, he is not lukewarm, but zealous and indefatigable.

The Fifty-ninth Congress assembled The New on the first Monday of December and Congress Organizes. organized by electing as Speaker the Hon. Joseph G. Cannon, of Illinois, who had been Speaker of the preceding House. The Republican majority is almost too large to be held safely under party rein and lash. The Republicans have almost exactly two-thirds of the membership of the House, and by an agreement between Speaker Cannon and the Democratic leader the Republicans have two-thirds of the places on the important committees and the Democrats one-third. Most of the committees have been slightly enlarged, in order to satisfy the demands for places. Although there are more than eighty new members in the House, few of the old leaders are absent, and the chairmanships of the principal committees remain unchanged, with few exceptions. Thus, when Mr. Cannon became Speaker, Mr. Hemenway, of Indiana, took Mr. Cannon's place as chairman of the Committee on Appropriations. But Mr. Hemenway is now in the Senate, where he



"CAN THEY ALL BE ANSWERED THIS SESSION?"

From the Inter-Ocean (Chicago).

occupies the seat made vacant by the elevation of Mr. Fairbanks to the Vice-Presidency. Mr. Tawney, of Minnesota, becomes chairman of the Committee on Appropriations. An interesting addition to the personnel of the House is to be noted in the reappearance of the Hon. J. Warren



"THE FIFTY-NINTH CONGRESS WILL NOW COME TO ORDER."

From the Chronicle (Chicago).

Keifer, of Ohio, who has been absent from Washington for twenty years, but who served as Speaker of the House for two Congresses, from 1881 to 1885. The Hon. John Sharp Williams, of Mississippi, is again the leader of the Democratic minority in the House.

The Senate, which, unlike the House, Changes in the is a continuous body, now has Vice-President Fairbanks for its parliamentary head. The death of Vice-President Hobart, in Mr. McKinley's first administration, made it necessary for the Senate to put one of its own members in the chair, and the post was filled by Senator Frye, of Maine. Mr. McKinley's death, early in his second administration, transferred Vice-President Roosevelt to the White House, and again Senator Frye was called to preside over the Senate. He is now on the floor of the chamber again after having had the gavel in his hand for many years. Since the Senate was last in session, one of its most distinguished members, the Hon. Orville H. Platt, of Connecticut, has passed away,—following his lamented

colleague, Senator Hawley. Thus, in Senators Bulkeley and Brandegee Connecticut has a new representation. The unfortunate Senator Mitchell, of Oregon, died in December, and his place is taken temporarily by John McDermot Gearin, a Democrat, appointed by the governor to fill



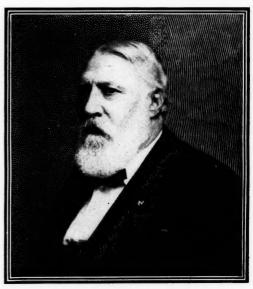
HON. JAMES A. TAWNEY, OF MINNESOTA.
(New chairman House Committee on Appropriations.)

the vacancy. One of the Delaware seats is vacant through the perennial tangle in the politics of that State. Mr. Warner appears from Missouri as a Republican to fill the seat of the venerable Cockrell. The patriarchal Stewart, of Nevada, is replaced by the Hon. George S. Nixon. Mr. LaFollette, the Senator-elect from Wisconsin, did not appear at Washington to be sworn in last month. As governor of his State, Mr. LaFollette had called an extra session of the Legislature, which met on December 5 to consider the matters of legislation which belonged essentially to the governor's programme. It was expected that the session would complete its work satisfactorily and adjourn before Christmas, and the governor submitted his resignation on December 19, in order to take his place in the Senate at Washington after the holiday recess.

The President's message was critiand His "Lay cised in many quarters for being a germon." more voluminous document than its predecessors. But the President was wiser than

his critics. Although in form he was addressing his message to Congress, he was well aware of that great mechanism of the press by which the entire unabridged document would be placed in the hands of every reading citizen of the entire country. No President had ever gained such a hearing and such an influence as belonged to President Roosevelt at the assembling of the Fifty-ninth Congress, and it is fair to say that no President had ever better earned the right to set forth his views upon questions of public policy. There was not a tinge of partisanship in his presentation of the questions of the day, but there was conviction, sincerity, and strength in all his statements and arguments. Many of the things set forth in this message had been already expressed by Mr. Roosevelt in one form or another; but he desired to mass them in a coherent, well-proportioned statement, in order to exhibit to the country, as well as to Congress, his views regarding public policy, and his convictions with respect to needed legislation at the present time.

The Control of Railroads. He gives first place to the need of a better governmental regulation of railroads. He makes it plain that the great railroad systems cannot now be controlled by the States, and are not, as a matter of fact, properly regulated by the national government. It is an absolutely clear case that he presents, and he will have the people with him. To frame



EX-SPEAKER J. WARREN KEIFER, OF OHIO. (In Congress again after twenty years.)



THE LEGISLATIVE SIDEWALK SNOWBOUND.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE; "Get busy!"-From the Journal (Minneapolis).

suitable legislation, however, is far more difficult than to set forth the need of public supervision and control of the great common carriers; while it is further to be said that it may prove even more difficult to pass suitable measures through a hesitant Senate than to put them into the proper form. There is nothing of a radical or sensational kind that is needed, and the railroads would be benefited rather than injured if government control should have the results that President Roosevelt desires. That some form of railroad bill will be passed during the present session is generally agreed. Meanwhile, the agitation of the subject is doing a vast amount of good, for it is exposing all the evils of rebating and discrimination, and is bringing remedies into effect even in advance of any legislation at Washington. Thus, some of the great railroad systems have decided to stop the issuing of passes to politicians and their friends. Few people have realized the extent of this evil.

Value of Public Agitation.

The very fact that the Bureau of Corporations of the new Commerce Department is always prepared to investigate has had its salutary results in leading railroad companies and industrial corporations to abandon some of their less defensible methods. The President's reiterated demand for a "square deal" has thus taken an amazing hold upon the business life, as well as upon the political life, of the country. The thorough awakening of the public mind, after all, is far more

important than the passing of laws. Thus, even if no way should be found at present to bring great insurance companies under supervision of the national government, such companies would nevertheless be obliged by public opinion henceforth to conduct themselves with a strict regard to their duties and obligations. The continuance of the insurance investigation in New York has kept before the country the fact that the companies have been in the habit of paying large sums of money to influence legislation and control the administration of the insurance laws. And what the insurance companies have done in this direction every discerning man knows must be less than the railroad companies, the trolley lines, the gas companies, and other franchise-holding corporations have been in the habit of doing to secure their own selfish ends. With public attention fixed upon these evils, no director of a corporation can henceforth be permitted to plead ignorance as an excuse for such practices. And with the warning thus given, the public will henceforth demand severe punishment and accept no excuses.

Panama and Congress. The original legislation on the subject of the Isthmian canal was devised for the purpose of getting something accomplished, and it was brilliantly successful. It enabled the President to decide upon the route and to buy out the French company, as well as to purchase the right of way from Panama, organize a canal commission, and start

the actual work of construction. But for the Spooner Act, which put this unprecedented discretion in the hands of the President, all this important history might not have been made. It is still true that the most effective way to construct a canal would be to leave carte blanche in the hands of the President. But Congress has now made it manifest that it will assert its usual functions and insist upon making appropriations in detail for the salary list, and upon supervising in general most of the matters that relate to the great engineering project at the Isthmus. In making an emergency appropriation last month for current canal expenditures, various members of both houses attempted with scanty success to find scandalous extravagance in such items, for example, as the payment to engineers of the kind of salaries that first-class engineering talent everywhere commands. There will be much obstruction, but there seems to be no other way in this country to get public work done except through the haggling of committees and the bombast of parliamentary orators. There will be rough weather on Panama waters at Washington this winter, but the project will go forward nevertheless.

Shipping Subsidies
Again.

The work of the Mercantile Marine Commission has resulted in a subsidy measure that will have powerful support, especially in the Senate, and that has ob-

tained a very favorable place on the calendar of that chamber. It is true that it would be desirable to have direct steamship lines between the United States and all the South American ports, and it would be gratifying if one should find on all the seas a multitude of swift and fine merchant steamers flying the American flag. But at present American enterprise seeks more profitable fields; and American young men are too well paid on the land to subject themselves to the hardships of a sailor's lot. Generally speaking, we hire Europeans to do our ocean freighting for us because they will do it cheaply. Instead of our losing money by not hauling our own goods to and from foreign lands, we save a great deal by getting the business done much more cheaply than we could do it ourselves. There may gradually come about a condition under which we shall build more merchant ships along our seaboard and sail more of them under the American flag. If some small and temporary encouragement can be given to aid in the starting of certain desirable lines, particularly to South American ports,—such, for example, as aid in the form of special pay for carrying the mails,-there might be some benefit derived; but any large measure of pecuniary grants to steamship lines from the public treasury would be contrary to the best judgment of the country. At present the Republicans have two-thirds of the members of the House of Representatives.





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THE SENATE COMMITTEE ON INTERSTATE COMMERCE, WHICH HAS RAILROAD-RATE LEGISLATION UNDER CONSIDERATION. (The Senators showing in the picture are, from left to right around the table: Edward W. Carmack, Tenn.; John Kean, N. J.; Shelby M. Cullum, Ill.; Stephen B. Elkins, chairman, W. Va.; clerk to committee; Moses E. Clapp, Minn.; J. P. Dolliver, Iowa; Joseph B. Foraker, Ohio; and Francis G. Newlands, Nev.)

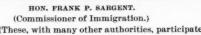
If they wish to see the party proportions reversed in the elections of next November, they will leave the present Dingley tariff unmodified and add thereto a system of subsidies for steamship lines.

The orderly and constructive mind Reforming the Consular that Secretary Root brought to bear upon the immense problems that confronted him in the War Department is now shown by him in the new work of his portfolio as Secretary of State. He was immediately impressed with the fact that the State Department had no record to enlighten him as to the merits and services of the men who make up our widely scattered force of consular officers. Furthermore, he saw that no part of the public service was so subject to political pressure. Where civil service reform had prevented the use of other branches of the government service for the purpose of providing for men who wish to be supported by Uncle Sam the consular service has remained open. And so it has often happened that good consuls who would have kept their places under any proper system have been summarily removed to make room for incompetent men possessing political influence. The result of Mr. Root's study of this subject is a bill, introduced early in December, which provides for a classification of consuls and consuls-general, seven grades being formed, with salaries ranging from \$3,500 to \$12,000. Under this bill all

members of the consular service are to be first appointed only to the lower grades, upon examination to be conducted by a special board of three members. The higher grades of the service are to be filled only by promotion. It is provided that five consular officers of high rank shall be assigned to inspection work, so that the Department of State may really know what is going on at the consulates throughout the world. An important feature of the bill requires that the clerks in the consular offices shall be Americans. The fee system is to be abolished. This measure embodies the results of the study given to the subject by Senators and others who have heretofore brought forward bills for the reform of the consular service. Mr. Root has explained and advocated the measure before the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, and it is greatly to be hoped that it may become a law. We have many excellent consuls already in the service to whom this measure will come as an act of recognition and justice, giving them both advancement and security.

Our Immigration casiness in other parts of eastern and southern Europe are having a marked effect upon emigration to America. For the fiscal year that ended six months ago, the number of immigrants received in this country was 1,026,499. This was the largest number ever admitted here in one year, and it represents a move-







HON. ROBERT WATCHORN. (Commissioner of Immigration, port of New York.) (These, with many other authorities, participated in the recent immigration conference at New York.)

ment of population unprecedented in the history of the world. Furthermore, the record for the past six months shows that an even larger number will probably have landed here in the year that will end on the 30th of June, 1906. By far the greatest part of last year's migration was from Austria-Hungary, Italy, and the Russian To receive into our economic and so-Empire. cial life so large a number of aliens every year is a serious matter from many standpoints. An important national conference on the subject of immigration was held in New York last month under the auspices of the National Civic Federation. Delegates were appointed by the governors of nearly all the States, and representatives were present from various societies and organizations. All views were represented on the platform, and the conference surprised itself, at the end of its deliberations, by finding that it could agree upon a series of resolutions. It was clearly the sense of the conference that no restrictions could now feasibly be placed upon the coming here of any immigrants who could not be classified as undesirable. On the other hand, it was the strongly prevailing opinion that far more effective measures should be taken to sift the incoming hordes, so as to keep out those physically and morally unfit, and those likely, through poverty or other causes, to become public burdens. The sentiment of the conference was in general lines with the recommendations of the President.

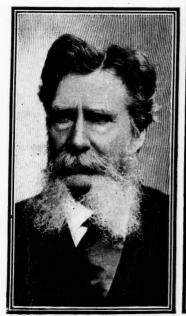
We publish elsewhere in this number Football of the Review some timely contribuand Hazing. tions upon the subject of football in the colleges and other educational institutions. President Butler explains the abolition of football at Columbia. President Wheeler, of the University of California, speaks forcibly for the complete reform of the game. President Finley, of the College of the City of New York, gives a summary of his own experiences. Dr. Sargent, the distinguished director of physical culture at Harvard University, shows how the game could be made a useful thing in a scheme of college athletics. The bad developments of football have grown chiefly out of the intensity of competition between the leading universities and colleges. The short and quick way to reform football would be to put an end for a term of years to the intercollegiate games. Spanish bullfighting is humane and refined as compared with recent American football. Even prize-fighting is conducted upon a higher plane of honor. Sensible observers have ceased to be patient with university and college authorities that have allowed their institutions to become chiefly known among large classes of the people for their success or failure in football contests. Our colleges and universities must set themselves to the complete abolition of the evils now associated with such contests as football, and of such barbarous practices as hazing. Several frightful

occurrences, since the opening of the present scholastic year, have shown the necessity of holding college authorities to a stricter account for their failure to check the cowardly and cruel practices that are carried on in hundreds of institutions under the generic name of hazing.

The insurance investigation has made the country as familiar with the Companies. names of the leading men in the great companies as with the chief functionaries of the government at Washington. Thus, the placing of Mr. Paul Morton at the head of the Equitable was a national event. In like manner the retirement of Mr. McCurdy from the presidency of the Mutual Life becomes a household topic. His successor, previously unknown to fame, becomes at once a man of note. Mr. Charles A. Peabody, now president of the Mutual, is a New York lawyer who has been identified with large business interests. Mr. McCall is still at the head of the New York Life, but Mr. George W. Perkins, who was first vice-president and chairman of the finance committee, retired last month. He was criticised for managing the affairs of the New York Life while also a partner in the firm of J. P. Morgan & Co. He was able to show, however, that he had managed the business of the insurance company with

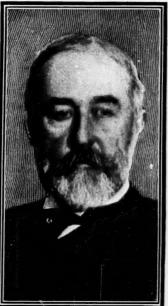
great success, and he retired with many compliments and the full confidence of his associates in the business world. Mr. Perkins' personal relations with some of the objectionable methods of insurance companies, such as political contributions and the like, remind one somewhat of Mr. Paul Morton's relations as a railroad man to rebates and similar objectionable practices. Both men were more or less the victims of systems for which they were not responsible, and which call for complete reform. Both men are above suspicion as respects their personal honor and integrity. Mr. Perkins remains a director in the New York Life, while his place as first vicepresident has been given to Mr. Alexander E. Orr, and the chairmanship of the finance committee to Mr. John Claflin.

A municipal election was held in Boston on December 12, and the Hon. John F. Fitzgerald, the Democratic candidate, was elected mayor. His victory is regarded with much disquietude by the conservative Bostonians, and many Democrats voted for other candidates. The campaign was of a personal nature, and public issues were not sharply drawn. In New York, the highest courts have decided against Mr. Hearst in his attempt to have a recount of the November vote.



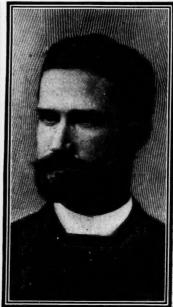
ALEXANDER E. ORR.

(New vice-president of the New York
Life Insurance Company.)



CHARLES A., PEABODY.

(New president of the Mutual Life Insurance Company.)



JOHN CLAFLIN.

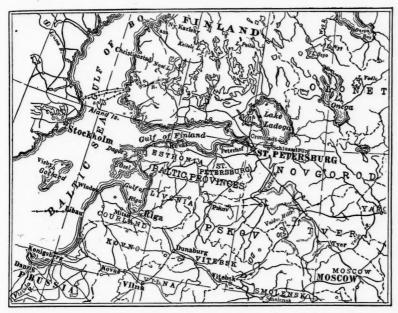
(New chairman of the finance committee
of the New York Life.)

For our neighbor to the north, the year just closed has been a prosperous and important one. We present elsewhere this month a statement of Canadian progress for 1905. Agriculturally, commercially, and industrially, Canada is prospering, and her foreign commerce is increasing by leaps and bounds. To the south of us, Latin America has had, in general, a peaceful year, broken only by a few incidents like the Venezuelan difference with France, which promises to be settled amicably in the very near future; by the little flurry in Brazil over the alleged violation of international comity by the German warship Panther, in the matter of a deserter from a German vessel; and by the elections in Cuba, which passed off quietly, the withdrawal of the Liberals leaving the field clear for the Moderates, so that President Palma was reëlected by an overwhelming majority. The resignation of Mr. Herbert G. Squiers as minister to Cuba (a post to which Mr. Edwin V. Morgan, formerly our minister to Korea, was at once appointed) and the agitation of the American residents in the Isle of Pines for annexation to the United States had also been interesting features of the month in our Cuban relations.

There were a number of very sigof the Russian nificant developments in the Russian Revolution. situation during December, which, despite the repeated rumors of a military dictatorship and a return to the policy of repression, indicated, on the one hand, the awakening to a consciousness of their power on the part of the people, and on the other hand the recognition by the governing classes of their inability to suppress Liberal Russia. The disorders at Odessa, Saratov, Kharkov, Kiev, and in Poland, serious as they have been, become comparatively insignificant when we consider the almost successful rebellion at Sevastopol and the insurrection in the Baltic provinces. As this magazine went to press the latter had progressed to such an extent that the Russian ruling classes had fled in terror and several separatist republics had been set up. Other significant events of the month were: the increasing agrarian disorders; the abrogation of martial law in Poland; several grand-ducal attempts on the life of the Czar; the assassination of former Minister of War Sakharov; the remarkable, rapid rise to power of the industrial leader who is referred to by the name of Krustalev, ending in his arrest and imprisonment by the St. Petersburg police; continued demonstration of the tremendous, well-ordered power of the Union of Unions, or League of Leagues, despite the government's

frantic opposition to all labor organizations; the great strike of telegraph operators, early in December, which kept Russia isolated from the world for more than a week; the concerted campaign of the revolutionists against Russia's financial credit, the leaders advising the withdrawal of funds from savings-banks and the refusal of paper currency, resulting in the fall of Russian consols (Imperial 4's) to a point much lower than after Mukden and Tsushima, -indeed, lower than any quoted since the Russo-Turkish War; and the spread of the revolt in the army, even the Cossacks catching the fever, which spread to General Linevich's Manchurian forces, resulting in the death of forty or fifty officers and the partial destruction by fire of the city of Harbin.

The mutiny at Sevastopol, Count Revolts at Sevastopol and Witte himself admitted, must be re-Elsewhere. garded as a most serious phase of a most serious situation. It was not a violent, anarchistic outbreak, like the Odessa mutiny of several months ago, or the Kronstad outbreak of October and November. The Sevastopol mutiny was orderly and impressive. Making the same demands as every other organized body in Russia has made during the past month,-namely, the realization of the reforms granted in the Czar's manifesto of October 30, the drafting of an actual constitution, and improvement in the condition of government employees,-the garrison at Russia's great Crimean fortress, and the marines on the war vessels in the harbor, elected one of their most far-sighted officers, a certain Lieutenant Schmidt, to be their leader. He formulated the demands of the men, and when, at the expiration of the time limit set, the more urgent were not granted by the commandant, Schmidt opened fire on the fortress from two insurgent vessels. Some of the forts and part of the squadron, together with some of the coast artillery, returned the fire, and the mutineers finally surrendered, not until, however, they had received in their ranks a number of the officers hitherto supposed to be loyal. Schmidt's forces actually landed, maintained order, and respected the rights of others, and the whole affair indicated that the revolutionists not only have much courage, but a good deal of far-sight and brains. The disorders at Saratov and Kiev were the result, largely, either of peasant uprisings or of anti-Jewish rioting, At Odessa, many Jews were killed, while at Warsaw and at other points in the old Polish kingdom anti-Jewish demonstrations had become serious enough to make the Hebrews fear a general massacre throughout Poland. In almost all these demonstrations



THE RUSSIAN BALTIC PROVINCES, WHICH HAVE REVOLTED AND SET UP A REPUBLIC.

against the Jews, the fanatical peasants have been led by disguised army officers or police, or other sympathizers with reaction. Ex-Minister of War Sakharov had been sent to "pacify" the rebellious provinces of Lithuania, a commission he proceeded to fulfill by the wholesale knouting of peasants and the perpetration by his drunken Cossacks of nameless outrages upon women, under the very eyes of this messenger of the Czar. Three days after his arrival, General Sakharov was shot by a woman, an agent of the "flying revolutionary column." In the opinion of many Russians, this deed was justified, and even Moderate journals have not commented adversely on the warning of death given to General Kaulbars, governor of Odessa, who (a number of refugees have testified under oath) openly declared, on October 19, that all the Jews in Odessa must be massacred.

Sufferings of the Battic Provinces. Ing the years when Plehve and Pobyedonostzev were attempting to carry out their barbarous policy of bringing down to the Muscovite level all the more highly developed subject races of the empire. The Baltic provinces are at bottom not Russian at all, but Lettish, or Lithuanian, with a heavy layer of Germanism superimposed. The Letts, who differ from the Finns, Russians, and Germans, and who were at

one time subject to Poland, have had to bear the persecutions of the Russian bureaucrats and the heavy hand of the German landed aristocracy. The four provinces of Esthonia, Livonia (Latinized form of Lithuania), Courland, and Kovno contain some of the most industrious and progressive population of Russia, and supply, after Finland, the bulk of the sailors of the Russian navy. These provinces contain the progressive and wellknown cities of Riga, Libau, Reval, Mitau, and Dorpat. The last named was one of the famous Hanseatic towns of the Middle Ages, and is the seat of the Protestant clergy of Russia and

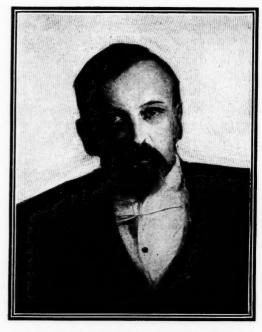
the intellectual center of the Lithuanian nation. Adjoining these are the provinces of St. Petersburg, containing the capital; Vilna, containing the old Lithuanian capital of the same name, and Pskov,-the latter the traditional seat of Slavonic democracy. The first Slavonic republic was set up in this ancient province more than six hundred years ago. This entire region has been, successively, Russian, Polish, Swedish, and again Russian. During the Middle Ages, German commercial enterprise spread throughout these provinces. To-day, in spite of their "hinterland," Riga and Dorpat are more German than Russian. Half their population is German, and by their history as well as by their modern connections and the character of their industry, they are centers of disaffection.

Riga the Genter of Revolt.

The Baltic provinces have always been independent and fearless, but usually submissive to the Russian crown. The heavy hand of despotism, however, made more irksome by the sight of Finland's regaining of her ancient liberties, has been too much for the Courlanders and Livonians, and they have risen against their German and Russian despoilers, burning estates and murdering landowners. The cities of Dorpat and Mitau have already been partly destroyed by fire, and all through the provinces the barons are expecting a "St. Bartholomew's night." By the middle

of December, the situation in Riga had become so critical that, immediately following the proclamation of a state of siege by the government, the laboring classes and the peasants, in convention assembled, passed resolutions declaring themselves a republic separate from Russia. As we go to press with this number of the REVIEW, Riga is being attacked by the government land and sea forces, while an organized rebel force of 500,000 men is reported to be holding the province in terror. The loyal troops being concentrated in towns, the rural districts are at the mercy of the revolutionaries, who have inaugurated a vigorous campaign, not only for the realization of the benefits promised by the Czar's manifesto, but for autonomy,-if not permanent separation. The German foreign office, it was reported early in December, had sent a politely worded request to St. Petersburg for protection to German residents, and followed it up by dispatching two German warships to Riga.

Nationalistic Stirrings in the Poles have, beyond a doubt, suffered most from the so-called Russification policy so fanatically pursued by the inquisitor Pobyedonostzev and the fanatical reactionary Plehve. It was Polish commerce and trade that was prostrated by the war with Japan, and Polish victims were the most numerous (after the Jews of Odessa) in the massacres which have disgraced the campaign of the reactionaries to discredit Count Witte's reform policy. Bankruptcy and bloodshed have been the price Poland has paid for her share in the reforms granted by the Czar, and if the reactionaries had their way she would not share even in these. Martial law was declared in Poland on November 12, and the next day, as we noted last month, an imperial rescript warned the Poles that the benefit of reforms would not be extended to them until disorders in Polish cities ceased. This only had the effect of stimulating Polish patriotism. Early in November, nationalistic parades became the feature of the day in Warsaw. At one time, more than three hundred thousand marched through the streets of the former Polish capital as a demonstration in favor of autonomy. It is evident that the Poles have been thoroughly aroused, since even the efforts of the Pope to make them change their course have proved fruitless. Despite the recommendations of the Holy Father, in his encyclical of December 12 to the bishops of Russian Poland, commanding the Poles to "be submissive to the rulers who exercise power by the will of God," and directing that no "seditious act" should ever emanate from a Polish gathering. On the



HENRYK SIENKIEWICZ, THE POLISH NOVELIST, WHO HAS RECEIVED THE NOBEL PRIZE FOR LITERATURE.

following day a meeting of four hundred and seventeen Catholic priests assembled in Warsaw, resolved to demand Polish autonomy, a Polish parliament, a universal secret ballot, the reinstatement of the Polish language in government offices, the abolition of capital punishment, and full amnesty for political prisoners. The Polish National Democratic party, which has the support of the large Socialist element, aims at the "closest possible moral and cultural coherence" and the attainment all over Poland "of the furthest possible separateness from foreign political systems for the broadest possible self-existence." Accepting every concession that the Russian Government may deign (or be compelled) to make to Poland and the Polish nationality, the National Democratic party "will remain a resistant unit until the Poles have become their own masters."

Forced by its own desperate condifers German tion and the pressure of public opinion, the imperial government, on December 1, actually did abolish martial law in Poland. There is no reasonable doubt that eventually the Poles will receive some measure of self-government,—perhaps full autonomy, if, as we suggested last month, they can await the deliberations of the Duma. Indeed, it is not so

much to St. Petersburg now as to Berlin that the Poles look with apprehension. Henryk Sienkiewicz, the eminent Polish novelist, whose literary success has just won him the Nobel prize for literature, and who is indeed entitled to be the spokesman of his people, recently declared that he believed the Russian Liberals would give Poland autonomy. The Poles, he further declared, will remain part of Russia if they get self-government. Neither Poland nor Russia, in his opinion, is ready to become a republic. If the Poles revolt politically, it will be, not against Russia, but against the bureaucratic government. Mr. Sienkiewicz concluded his remarks to the journalist who interviewed him with these rather significant words: "We love to think of our independence, but, while we are strong enough to demand freedom from Russia, we are not strong enough to defend it against Germany."

Several interesting but radically dif-Some of the New Russian ferent personalities have been brought to light by the events of the past six weeks in Russia. Czar Nicholas himself has gained in the opinion of the world for the steadfastness with which he supports Minister-President Witte. To a deputation representing a number of patriotic leagues, composed principally of reactionary noblemen, the Czar declared (on December 14) that the manifesto of October 30 is the "complete and deliberate expression of my inflexible and unchangeable will, and is an act which admits of no alteration." Count Witte himself, although under great strain and in the face of tremendous criticism and opposition, has succeeded in maintaining his position, although, during early December, there were many reports of his resignation or assassination. Of such men as ex-Minister of War Sakharov (killed for torturing the peasants), of the Grand Duke Vladimir (who was reported to have wounded the Emperor because of the latter's reproving his son, the Grand Duke Boris), of Governor-General Skallon (noted for his brutalities in Poland), of Minister of the Interior Durnovo (against whom all classes have arisen because of his reactionary ideas),-of such men it is unnecessary to speak. They represent the old régime, with all its barbarity and cruelty. The new governorgeneral of Finland, however, Nicholas Gerhard (whose accession to office occurs at the same time as the resignation of the hated Linder, Bobrikov's lieutenant), has been a member of the Council of the Empire and president of the Committee on Civil and Ecclesiastical Affairs, and is a man of progressive and liberal tendencies. the most picturesque and remarkable figure of Russia during the past month has been the

leader of the workmen, Krustalev,-the brains of the League of Leagues, who was imprisoned (on December 10) by the St. Petersburg police. Krustalev, whose real name is Nossar, is a Jew, the son of a poor farmer and carpenter in Little Russia. He is only twenty-eight years of age. Overcoming great obstacles, such as the Russian state knows how to put in the way of its Hebrew subjects, the boy managed to educate himself, graduating from the Law Department of the University of St. Petersburg, and coming to the front as the leader of the students several years ago in their conflict with the mounted police under General Vannovski. Krustalev worked as a printer; roamed among the peasants, investigating their condition; became a Socialist; was the chief workingmen's delegate at the ineffective Shidlovski reform commission appointed last January, and when this commission was disbanded it was Krustalev who urged the workingmen to remain organized. Meanwhile. through his efforts, the great union of Russian labor unions was built up, and the Workmen's Council, which has been really the provisional government of Russia for two months, was created, with Krustalev as its president.

Proclaimed Is Why, ask a number of Review read-Not Liberty ers—why, perhaps the majority of Secured. Americans are asking, if, as the newspaper headlines would have us believe, the Czar has really granted a constitution, liberty of the press and person, political amnesty and representative government-why all these riots and disorders, these massacres and burnings, these meetings of protest and defiance, these movements of nobleman, merchant, and peasant against the government, and even against Count Witte's ministry? What do the Russian people want? The answer is simple. Liberty proclaimed is not liberty secured. As we recorded last month in these pages, the Czar has really liberalized himself. The autocracy has surrendered. But the bureaucracy remains, and, as Mr. Stead graphically pointed out in his article from Russia last month, the bureaucracy, trained by generations of power and greed to consider itself entitled to rule, is not bent on suicide. The Czar grants the fundamental liberties to the Russian people, but the officials, in their oftrepeated, cruel way, deny the application of the When Governor-General imperial mandate. Skallon received the manifesto of October 30 he tore it up and said it did not apply to Poland. When the news of autocracy's surrender finally reached the half-starved, half-frozen soldiers of Linevich in Manchuria the officers declared that the provisions of the manifesto did not

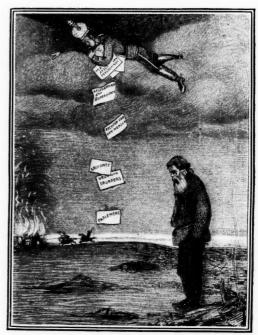
apply to the army. Full liberty of the press was granted by the manifesto of October 30, but when the press law based on the manifesto was promulgated it was found that instead of assuring freedom it revived the worst forms of arbitrary restrictions and punishments. Newspapers may be printed, but they cannot be circulated without being subject to the censor.

The Russian people have been cruelly Deception deceived for centuries, and they will No Longer Possible. no longer accept the shadow for the substance. It is not paper manifestoes that are needed to supply food to the starving peasants and to save the wretched Jews from the terrible ferocity of fanaticism. The cartoonist of the Hollandsche Revue, in the picture we reproduce on this page, has caught the point of view of the Russian All the revolts, insurrecproletariat exactly. tions, mutinies, strikes, and other anti-governmental demonstrations formulate the same demand,—carry out at once, and fully, the provisions of the Czar's manifesto. Every class, excepting the most reactionary of the nobles, is now actually, if not openly, on the side of the revolutionaries. The army and the navy are honeycombed with mutiny, and even the Cossacks, the hitherto ever-faithful servants of despotism, have protested. When, early in December, it was reported that all the Cossacks of the empire, numbering some four hundred thousand, were to be mobilized for use against the revolutionary movement, many thousands of the Cossacks of the Don signed a protest (published in the Russkaiya Slovo), declaring:

Enough blood, enough tears, enough suffering. The blood of innocent victims and the tears and sobs of those left behind force us to declare that this shameful police service for Cossacks must cease, that the Cossack regiments demand that they shall not be used any longer against the innocent, the progressive, and the intelligent among our citizens.

For the first week in December, owing Revolutionary to the thoroughness and wide scope Manifesto. of the telegraph operators' strike, Russia was completely isolated from the rest of the world. Communication with St. Petersburg and the other large cities of the empire was had by courier to the German and Swedish borders. It is significant of the strength of the League of Leagues that, while the government could not get any of its messages out, the business of the revolutionary organizations was conducted as usual over all telegraph lines of the empire. The strike was called, primarily to secure better conditions for government telegraphers. The immediate occasion, however, was the govern-

ment's express prohibition against the formation of any labor union by its employees. It was then that the real strength of the organized Russian proletariat was shown. The central committee of the League of Leagues, with Krustalev at its head, issued orders which were obeyed all over the empire, and practically became the provisional government. The arrest of Krustalev and several other leaders by the police did not halt the movement an hour. New leaders, already secretly chosen, stepped to the front, and the last days of December saw another general strike in operation all over the empire. On December 15, with the support of the Union of Peasants and the General Railway Union, these allied organizations issued a manifesto, in which the government was openly defied. In this document the government was declared to be bankrupt, the people were directed not to pay taxes, to refuse to accept anything except gold in the payment of wages, and warned to withdraw all their deposits from the savingsbanks in gold. These latter warnings were made necessary, it was announced, by the fact that the government had issued an immense sum in paper money.



WHAT GOOD DOES THE PAPER DO THE LONG-SUFFERING RUSSIAN?

This is the way the *Hollandsche Revue* (Haarlem) pictures the uselessness of paper manifestoes and constitutions when the people are starving and dying under the whip.

"The Sooner The document, which was signed by ment Falls the the delegates of the Workmen's Council, the Committee of the Pan-Russian Union and the Central Committee of Social Democrats, the Social Revolutionists, and the Socialists of Poland,—a combination which has now come to be known as the "Invisible Government,"-followed the form of a regular imperial manifesto. It indicted the bureaucracy for bringing about the financial ruin of the country, asserted that the government has squandered the country's income and the proceeds of foreign loans on railroads, the army, and the fleet, leaving the people without schools or roads. The result is, "there is no money to feed the soldiers, and everywhere there are insurrections of the beggared and starving troops and sailors." Further, the manifesto charges the government with using the deposits in the national savingsbanks to speculate on the Bourse, and with covering up its chronic deficits in the interest on the national debt by the proceeds of the foreign loans. The only salvation for the country, concludes the manifesto, is the overthrow of the autocracy by a Constituent Assembly. "The sooner the government falls the better. Therefore, the last source of the existence of the old régime — its financial revenue — must be stopped." This gage of battle to the government, while prepared in secret, was thrown down without attempt at concealment. It was published in all the newspapers. The revolutionary leaders expected that it would be followed by reprisals and arrest, but for all this they were prepared. Count Witte's reply to the memorial of the Moscow zemstvo congress declares that, the foremost duty of the Council of Ministers being to carry out the Emperor's will as expressed in the manifesto of October 30, "no consideration can be given to petitions or resolutions going beyond the limits of the manifesto, nor can measures be taken which might affect the rights of the National Assembly before it meets. The adoption, however, of temporary measures to assure the liberties granted by the manifesto is not prohibited."

A Temporary Triumph of seemed to the outside world that a seemed to the outside world that a return to the policy of reaction and repression had been determined upon by the Czar and his counselors. Wholesale arrests, not only of Liberal leaders, but of such men as Prof. Paul Milyukov, the author and sociologist, and the retention of Minister of the Interior Durnovo, together with the persistent report that General Ignatiev would be appointed dictator, and the undoubted intention of the govern-

ment to fight the strike agitators, indicated that, temporarily, at least, the reactionaries had again won the upper hand. A permanent return to the policy of reaction, however, it is generally believed by those familiar with Russian conditions, is impossible. The excess of zeal on the part of the reformers, and the violent disorders throughout the empire (another revolt in the Caucasus is reported as we go to press with this number), may have made inevitable a short period of reaction. Even a dictatorship is not impossible. Czar Nicholas, however, has gone too far to go back upon his word now, and when the Duma has actually begun its deliberative sessions we may expect the beginning of a series of real concessions by the autocracy, not only of the privileges already granted on paper, but of others necessary to the full measure of constitutional government.

The Troubles Another stage in the slow but sure expulsion of the Turk from Europe was entered upon last month when, upon the actual occupation of the islands of Lemnos and Mitylene and the administration of the customs by the allied fleets of Austria, Russia, Italy, Great Britain, and France, the Turkish Sultan yielded to the demands of the powers of Europe for a general European control of the finances of Macedonia. Dr. Maurice Baumfeld. on another page (77), this month recounts the events which led up to this accomplishment. The Porte accepted (on December 12) the final draft of the scheme for the financial control of Macedonia, and the allied fleet was withdrawn. The resignations of the Italian, Spanish, and Montenegrin cabinets last month were also due to questions of financial administration based on racial differences. The immediate occasion, however, of the downfall of the Fortis cabinet in Italy was the adverse vote in the Chamber on the proposed commercial modus vivendi with Spain, which provided for a reduction in the import duty on Spanish wines, and would affect large portions of the Italian population. The young King of Spain had a cabinet resignation upon his hands, but he succeeded in prevailing upon Señor Moret, ex-minister of the interior, to form a new cabinet at once. The best-known name in this ministry is that of the Duke of Almodovar, who holds the foreign portfolio. He has already issued a vigorous statement regarding Spain's rights in the settlement of the Moroccan question, and when the long-lookedfor conference meets (on January 10, and at Madrid, it is now announced, and not at Algeciras) Spain will insist upon being heard in that struggle for international leadership which

will be led by France and Germany, with Morocco as the excuse.

Early December saw the convening Germanu's of national legislative bodies all over the world, questions of great national moment facing the parliaments in Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, Italy, Spain, the Australian Commonwealth, and the empire of Japan. The German Reichstag, which began its sessions on November 28, immediately plunged into a discussion of the two great questions which now press for settlement in Germany,-the commercial treaties with foreign nations, particularly the United States, and the new taxes necessary to provide the budget which the Kaiser deems necessary for his expanding navy. In his speech from the throne, Kaiser Wilhelm made his usual vigorous statement of Germany's international position, referring cordially to Japan, Russia, and Norway, and closing with a rather significant remark that, while "Germany has correct relations with all the countries of the world," she has "good and friendly relations with most of them." There is a great lack of appreciation of German ways, further declared the Kaiser, and many prejudices against the advance made by German industry. The Kaiser is glad that he was able to "support the President of the United States in his successful endeavors to bring about peace in the far East between the Emperors of Russia and Japan." He also emphasizes the desirability of continuing the alliance with Austria and Italy. In reviewing Germany's international position, the Kaiser said:

We cannot ignore the fact that we have continually to reckon with a misapprehension of the German character and with prejudices against the progress of German industry. The difficulties which had arisen between ourselves and France on the Morocco question originated solely with an inclination to settle without our cooperation matters in which the German Empire also had interests to protect. Such tendencies, checked at one point, may reappear at another. To my satisfaction, an understanding has been arrived at in the Morocco question by diplomatic means with all consideration for the interests and the honor of both parties, and the convocation and the programme of a new Morocco conference have been arranged. The peace of the German people is to me a sacred thing, but the signs of the times make it the duty of the nation to strengthen its defenses against unrighteous attacks.

Of course, the disturbed condition of Germany's vast neighbor, Russia, affords the Kaiser some uneasiness, especially in view of the fact that the German Socialists, who are growing stronger at each election, have noted the liberalizing of Russia and the granting of universal suffrage in Austria, and who, in the words of their great

leader, Herr Bebel, now regard "Germany as the most reactionary state in the world." In a recent speech in the Reichstag, the Socialist leader attacked the government's foreign policy, particularly for antagonizing Great Britain and arousing the enmity of Japan by the "foolish and unprofitable" retention of Kiao-Chau. The assembling of the Reichstag this year finds Berlin the fourth city in population in the world. According to the census figures announced last month, the German capital has a population of 2,033,900 souls.

When, early in November, it was Suffrage in of universal suffrage into Hungarian politics, Baron Gautch von Frankenthurn, the Austrian premier, objected on the ground that it would tend to disturb Austrian conditions. Events have proven his political insight. Because the Magyars wanted Hungarian words of command in the army, the stop-gap Hungarian minister, Baron Fejervary, conceived the idea of diverting their attention by proposing universal suffrage, and making this more palatable by the suggestion of other reforms, economic and political, as we outlined in these pages last month. The Austrian Socialists, as well as their brethren



ALL THE OTHER POWERS ENVYING GERMAN INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL PROSPERITY.

From Kladderadatsch (Berlin).

in Hungary, took up the issue with enthusiasm, and demonstrations occurred throughout the empire, accompanied by more or less rioting, particularly in Bohemia, where anti-Semitism is The Australian Socialists finally deterstrong. mined to give a proof of their power to organize and manage the people by a monster procession in Vienna, at the time of the assembling of the Reichsrath. They accordingly ordered a strike of twenty-four hours, and arranged the procession so carefully and systematically that there was no disorder, although two hundred and fifty thousand working men and women, marching ten abreast for four hours, passed the parlia ment building in full view of the Emperor. All singing and cheering had been forbidden, and the three thousand marshals organized, managed, and dispersed the demonstrators without any assistance from the police. Every shop in Vienna was closed, and the populace watched the silent procession of workers with their red flags, bearing the same inscriptions in all the languages of the empire, indicating the unity and solidarity of the movement, which was even above racial lines. Such a demonstration had never before been witnessed in Vienna. In full view of the Emperor, a deputation at the head of the procession presented a petition to the premier and the presidents of the two houses. Parliament opened at 11 o'clock, November 28, and, precisely at noon, the premier announced the granting of equal suffrage to the people. Under the new law, which will be introduced in the lower house in March and probably be passed, despite violent opposition from the peers, all the existing special suffrage privileges are abolished. The number of German, Polish, Roumanian, Croatian, and Italian Deputies will be somewhat diminished, while the number of Czech, Ruthenian, and Slavonian Deputies will be slightly increased.

While the larger imperialistic coun-Switzerland, Belgium, and tries of Europe are passing through the deep waters, the democratic smaller nations are prospering and progressing. In December, the Swiss republic chose as its new president M. Forrer, until now vice-president of the Federal Council. M. Forrer, who is sixty years of age, is an ex-railroad president, a celebrated Radical Democratic orator, and the father of a scheme to provide national compensation for injured workmen. Holland has been having a prosperous year in her colonies. Belgium has been interested in the eminently successful fine arts exhibit at the Liège Exposition, at which, in the words of the official report, "the carpet was more worn before the pictures in the American section than elsewhere." Denmark has seen one of her royal sons placed on the Norwegian throne. Despite a momentary irritation on the part of Sweden, the Danes hope that this promises a fulfillment of the Danish dream of a united Scandinavia, in which Sweden would have the political direction, Norway the lead in literature and art, and Denmark the headship in economics and industry. Norway and Sweden are on the high-road to a complete restoration of friendship, and the comments on the election of King Haakon (of which we'reprint extracts on another page of this issue) do not indicate any serious differences yet to be settled. Last month the Swedish capital saw the awarding of the Alfred Nobel prizes, monuments to the love and respect of a Swedish capitalist for the arts of peace. These prizes went to three German professors,-Koch for medicine, von Bayer, of Munich, for chemistry, and Lenard, of Kiel, for physics; to the Baroness Bertha von Suttner for peace; and to Henryk Sienkiewicz, the eminent Polish novelist, for literature.

In the year just closed there were two religious revivals of great na-Gains in 1905. tional moment, and productive, no doubt, of much spiritual good,—those in Norway and Wales. The religious gains of the year, however, can perhaps be said to have consisted, not so much in a widespread and pronounced spiritual awakening as in what might be termed the readjustment, in accordance with the times. of the economic and political relations which religious organizations have with governments. This readjustment, of course, in the end makes for a purer and higher spirituality. With the fall of Pobyedonostzev and the removal of religious disabilities by the Czar, the Russian Church has been born again, and will undoubtedly play a greater part than ever before in the political and moral regeneration of the Russian people. Pope Pius X. has more than maintained the policy of enlightenment and progressive statesmanship with which he began his pontificate. He has been far-sighted and progressive enough to recall a number of long-antedated Papal bulls. among them the famous "Bulla Cruciata." By this action he now absolutely forbids the future sale of any privilege or dispensation by Catholic bishops and clergy for a money consideration. The Bulla Cruciata, issued at the time of the Crusades, has remained, in the hands of the bigoted bishops of Spain, Spanish America, and the Philippines, a means of great religious, political, and social corruption. His Holiness has also taken high and advanced ground in departing from the "non expedit" attitude of Leo XIII.

and Pius IX., permitting, and even advising, pious Catholics to vote at national and local elections throughout Italy. This brings the Vatican into much more friendly and profitable relations with the Quirinal, and regains in Italy a modicum of that political influence which is lost to the Church in France by the abrogation of the famous Concordat.

The formal separation of Church and The Church and French State in France took place on December 6, when the French Senate passed the Briand bill, which had been passed by the Chamber of Deputies on July 3, last. As already stated in these pages, this provides that hereafter no newly made clergyman of any religious denomination shall receive any financial support from the government of the republic. Those who now receive financial support will continue to do so, but the public worship appropriation will continually decrease as the salaries and pensions of the priests now in office are withdrawn or expire. Hereafter, the formation of religious associations will be the only necessary legal course for Catholics to preserve their churches and other religious property. The vote on the separation of Church and State stood: in the Chamber. 341 to 233; in the Senate, 181 to 102. This sweeps away a system which dates from 1801, when the Concordat was signed by Pope Pius VII. and the first Napoleon. Under the Concordat, the churches were government property and the clergy were paid by the State, the entire church administration being under direction of a member of the president's cabinet. While the new law will affect all religious denominations (for all have been receiving state subvention), it will particularly affect the thirtyeight millions of French Catholics. It frees the State from undue ecclesiastical influence and liberates the Church from financial dependence on the State. Individual churches will not be entirely free, perhaps, but on the whole the French Church in its relation to the French State will be brought measurably nearer Cayour's ideal of "a free Church in a free State."

The Coming French
Presidential question has been settled, the French question has been settled, the French parliament will devote itself to preparing for the election of a new president to succeed Émile Loubet, who has been in office since 1899. The election will take place on the 17th of next month. M. Loubet has been pressed to accept another term of office, but has positively declined, and while at the present time there can scarcely be said to be even candidates

in the field, it is prophesied by those who have studied the matter that the choice of the combined Senate and Chamber of Deputies (for that is the way a French president is elected) will fall upon M. Clément Fallières, the president of the Senate. Other statesmen who are "prominently mentioned" are: M. Paul Doumer, president of the Chamber, who shares with the recent premier, M. Combes, the support of the Radicals; M. Léon Bourgeois, an ex-premier and formerly president of the Chamber; M. Jean Dupuy, a former minister and now editor and proprietor of the Petit Parisien; and M. Eugène Brisson, ex-premier and the parliamentarian who forced the reopening of the Drevfus case. We will treat the French election at greater length in a subsequent number.

A New British Great Britain is once more under a Liberal government. Mr. Balfour hesitated for more than a year, and then he and his cabinet resigned on December 4, and King Edward at once summoned Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, the Liberal leader, to form a new one. The full official list of the new ministers is as follows:

Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman.
Lord Chancellor, Sir Robert T. Reid.
Chancellor of the Exchequer, Herbert H. Asquith.
Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Sir Edward Grey.
Secretary of State for the Colonies, the Earl of Elgin.
Secretary of State for War, Richard B. Haldane.
Secretary of State for Home Affairs, Herbert J. Gladstone.

Secretary of State for India, John Morley. First Lord of the Admiralty, Lord Tweedmouth. President of the Board of Trade, David Lloyd-George. President of the Local Government Board, John Burns. Chief Secretary for Scotland, John Sinclair. President of the Board of Agriculture, Earl Carrington. Postmaster-General, Sydney C. Buxton. Chief Secretary for Ireland, James Bryce. Lord President of the Council, the Earl of Crewe. Lord of the Privy Seal, the Marquis of Ripon. President of the Board of Education. Augustine Birrell. Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, Sir Henry H.

The following are not memoers of the cabinet, but form part of the incoming administration:

Fowler.

Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, the Earl of Aberdeen. Under Secretary for the Colonies, Winston L. Churchill. First Commissioner of Works, Louis Vernon-Harcourt. Attorney-General, John Lawson Walton. Solicitor-General, William S. Robson.

Mr. Stead, than whom there are few living Englishmen better qualified to speak concerning British governmental affairs, tells the story of the whole change of ministry this month (on



THE EARL OF ABERDEEN. (Who has been reappointed (Who has been appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.)

MR. WINSTON CHURCHILL. British Under Secretary of the Colonies.)

page 33), and this leaves nothing further to be said here than to record, as we have already done, the names of the full cabinet, some of whom had not been definitely appointed when Mr. Stead's article was written,—from London in the first days of December. In spite of the dismal predictions of the Conservatives and the somewhat timid hopes of many Liberals, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman has succeeded in organizing a ministry of unusual strength. Perhaps the most significant fact about the ministry is that it does not contain a single corporation director. It is interesting to note the unusually large number of literary men in the new ministry. John Morley is the author of the most important biography (that of Gladstone) produced in many years; James Bryce has produced probably the best treatise on "The American Commonwealth;" Judge Haldane has written an equally able "Life of Adam Smith;" Augustine Birrell is one of the most graceful of living English essayists; Sir Edward Grey and Sydney Buxton, both lovers of sport, have written authoritatively on fishing and shooting; the Earl of Crewe is a poet of no mean order; and John Burns is a prolific writer of pamphlets.

Before the middle of the present The Election month there will be a general election in Great Britain, and this will give to the Liberal government the popular sanction it seeks. It is generally believed that the result will be a House of Commons contain-

ing a stronger Liberal majority than any during the past twenty-five years. As to its composition, of course, speculation is idle. Mr. Stead. however, estimates that, parodoxical as it may seem in view of their mercurial temperament, the Irish Nationalist vote can be calculated upon beforehand with absolute certainty. It is almost sure to remain at the same figures as at present, -83 votes. There will, of course, be an increase in the Labor representation, and these Labor members are the stanchest of Liberals in conviction, although not necessarily strong party men. Mr. Stead argues that the Liberals must have at least 340 seats in the new House, so as to be certain of a working majority in view of the possible, though not probable, defection of the 83 Irish and 35 to 40 Labor votes. Of the issues before the country, Mr. Stead also speaks. It seems a foregone conclusion that the Liberals will attempt to make, and probably succeed in making, one issue, and that the tariff one, which has been forced on the country by Mr. Chamberlain. As to the question of Home Rule for Ireland, we know that the Liberal policy will be to bring about a policy of local self-government for Ireland "on the installment plan." The new premier's own opinions on the subject were outlined in a recent speech, in which "C.-B." said:

My opinion has long been known to you. It is that the only way of healing the evils of Ireland,-difficulties of her administration, of giving contentment and prosperity to her people, and of making her a strength instead of a weakness to the empire,-is that the Irish people should have the management of their own domestic affairs; and so far from this opinion fading and dwindling as the years pass, it is becoming stronger, and, what is more, I have more confidence in its realization. . . . If I were asked for advice by an ardent Nationalist, I would say my desire is to see the effective management of Irish affairs in the hands of a representative Irish party. . . . I trust that the opportunity of making a great advance on this question of Irish government will not long be delayed, and when that opportunity comes my firm belief is that a greater measure of agreement than hitherto as to the utimate solution will be found possible, and that a keener appreciation will be felt of the benefits that will flow to the Irish communities and British people throughout the world, and that Ireland, from being disaffected, impoverished, and discouraged, will take its place as a strong, harmonious, and contented portion of the empire.

Just how far the Irish vote can unsettle this equilibrium remains to be seen. Among other issues which press for immediate attention is that of the unemployed in London and other large cities of the kingdom. A graphic pen picture of the way in which this terrible problem presents itself even to visitors is given by Miss Agnes C. Laut on another page (40) this month.

The treaty between Japan and China Japan with regard to Manchurian problems Agree. and the future relations of the two countries was signed at Peking on December 21. The Chinese members have been entertaining Baron Komura, the Japanese plenipotentiary, with a series of banquets, and the baron has been saying complimentary things to the Chinese representative, Viceroy Yuan-Shih-Kai. In general it may be said that under its provisions Japan will occupy the same position in Manchuria as Russia did before the war, except that the "open door" will prevail. While the exact terms of the treaty are not made public, it is generally believed that China has consented to make certain valuable concessions to Japan in recognition of the latter's defense of China's interests during the war with Russia. The general result of the conference, however, has been to strengthen the hands of the party headed by Viceroy Yuan, which favors the policy of "China for the Chinese." The usually well-informed correspondent of the London Times at Peking "believes" that the substance of the convention is as follows:

(1) The railway south of Changchung will be handed over to Japan. China, however, will have the right to repurchase it. (2) Japan will be allowed to maintain railway garrisons. (3) Japan will evacuate Manchuria within eighteen months. (4) The military telegraphs will be treated in the same manner as the railway. The fifth, sixth, and seventh clauses provide for garrisoned consulates at Newchwang, Mukden, Antung, Kirin, Changchung, and other places. The residences of Japanese and banking shall be restricted to those places. (8) The custom-house will be maintained at Newchwang. The customs hitherto collected by the Japanese shall be restored to China. (9) The military notes issued by the Japanese shall be redeemed rapidly. (10) The Japanese military administration shall lapse with Japan's evacuation of Manchuria.

He hears, further, that Port Arthur and the entire Liao-Tung peninsula will be evacuated by Japan on the same date that Russia would have had to evacuate it (March, 1923), and that the city of Harbin will immediately be opened up to foreign trade.

In spite of charges that Japan did not Japanese act in good faith in the establishing Politics. of her protectorate over Korea and the rather feeble protest of the Korean Emperor to France and the United States, it was scarcely necessary to have the Japanese official account of the negotiations at Seoul to realize the fact that it will be infinitely better for the world at large and for the Koreans themselves to have the foreign relations or the Hermit Kingdom administered from Tokio. Mr. Hayashi, the Japanese representative in Seoul, explained the



Stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

ADMIRAL TOGO AND PRIME MINISTER COUNT KATSURA AT THE TOKIO MUNICIPAL RECEPTION TO THE JAPANESE FLEET, OCTOBER 26.

situation in the message accompanying the draft of the proposed treaty establishing the protec-The preamble said:

Despite the fact that since the beginning of history both Japan and Korea had always had common interests, the integrity of Korea has often been endangered, thus leading to a disturbance of the peace of the East. This is attributed to the mismanagement of her foreign affairs on the part of Korea. Two agreements of a temporary nature have already been concluded between Japan and Korea since last year. In order further to consolidate the principle of the said agreement, it is necessary to conclude the accompanying treaty.

Marquis Ito is to be the resident-general at Seoul. In Japanese imperial politics there is becoming evident a degree of hostility to the Katsura cabinet that is expected to cause its downfall in the early days of the new Diet, just about to assemble. A most significant occurrence, and one calculated to greatly increase our respect for Japanese intellectual independence and governmental purity, is the resignation of Yusuru Kubota, the minister of education, because of a protest by the professors and instructors of the Imperial University of Tokio against the minister's interference in university administration.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From November 21 to December 19, 1905.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

December 4.—Both branches of the Fifty-ninth Congress meet for the first session...The Senate adjourns out of respect for the memory of the late Senator O. H. Platt, of Connecticut...The House reëlects Speaker Joseph G. Cannon (Rep.), of Illinois.

December 5.—The President's annual message is read in both branches....A resolution asking President Roosevelt to intercede in behalf of the Jews in Russia is introduced in the House.

December 6.—In the Senate, Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio) introduces a railroad-rate bill and Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) a reciprocity bill....The House debates a bill making an appropriation for work on the Panama Canal; the commission's statements of expenditures are criticised.

December 7.—In the Senate, Mr. Tillman (Dem., S.C.) advocates federal supervision of insurance.... The House passes the Panama Canal appropriation bill, after cutting down the total sum from \$15,000,000 to \$11,000,000.

December 11.—In the Senate, Mr. Tillman (Dem., S. C.) introduces a railroad-rate bill....Speaker Cannon announces the House committees.

December 12.—The Senate passes a bill authorizing the construction of a railroad bridge in Arkansas.

December 14.—The Senate considers the Panama Canal appropriation bill and passes a bill regulating the issue of canal bonds....The House discusses the question of federal supervision of insurance.

December 15.—In the Senate, Mr. Tillman (Dem., S. C.) attacks the administration's policy in Panama and Santo Domingo....In the House, Mr. Cockran (Dem., N. Y.) makes a severe attack on the three larger insurance companies.

December 16.—The Senate passes the Panama Canal appropriation bill....The House continues discussion of the insurance question.

December 18.—In the Senate, the standing committees are announced....The House discusses insurance and immigration.

December 19.—The Senate adopts the report of the conferees on the Panama Canal appropriation bill....
The House continues general debate on insurance.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT-AMERICAN.

November 21.—Senator Thomas C. Platt, of New York, testifies before the legislative insurance committee that he has received contributions from the Equitable and the Mutual Life for State political campaigns and has turned them over to the Republican State Committee.

November 24.—August Belmont, of New York, is appointed treasurer of the National Democratic Committee.

November 27.—President Roosevelt removes from office Assistant Treasurer Leib, at Philadelphia, for violations of the civil-service law.

November 29.—Governor Blanchard, of Louisiana,



Photograph by Chickering, Boston.

MAYOR-ELECT JOHN F. FITZGERALD, OF BOSTON.

asks the grand jury to act on the alleged remissness of the New Orleans authorities with reference to the yellow-fever epidemic.

December 4.—The Wisconsin Legislature meets in extra session.

December 12.—Ex-Congressman John F. Fitzgerald (Dem.) is elected mayor of Boston by a decisive plurality.

December 13.—Governor Chamberlain, of Oregon, announces the appointment of John M. Gearin (Dem.) to succeed the late John H. Mitchell as United States Senator....The New York Court of Appeals decides against Hearst in the ballot cases.

December 14.—Ex-Governor Yates, of Illinois, announces his candidacy for the United States Senate.

December 15.—Bids for the construction of railroads in the Philippines are opened at Washington.

December 19.—Governor La Follette, of Wisconsin, formally resigns the governorship, to take his seat as a United States Senator.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT-FOREIGN.

November 21.—Mr. Chamberlain is reëlected to the presidency of the Liberal-Unionist Council of Great Britain.

November 22.—In the Russian zemstvo congress a resolution is introduced defining the future relation between the zemstvoists and the government.

November 23.—The federal House of Representatives in Melbourne, Australia, passes the government's closure proposal....The zemstvo congress at Moscow passes a resolution supporting the Russian Government conditionally on its giving universal suffrage and the convocation of a Constituent Assembly without delay.

November 24.—The Russian zemstvo congress, by great majorities, passes resolutions equivalent to a vote of no confidence in the government.

November 25.—The Egyptian budget submitted to the council of ministers shows a surplus of \$2,500,000Prince George of Greece issues a proclamation of annesty for political offenses connected with the insurrection in Crete.

November 27.—King Haakon VII. takes the oath to observe the Norwegian constitution.

November 28.—The Russian Government decides to suppress the revolt at Sevastopol...The Spanish Chamber of Deputies suspends constitutional guarantees in Patagonia....Emperor William opens the Reichstag....The Austrian parliament is opened....A great political demonstration takes place in Vienna, organized by the Social Democrats; three hundred thousand working men and women march past the Reichsrath demanding universal suffrage....A British royal commission is appointed to inquire into the working of the poor laws.

November 29.—The Japanese privy council rescinds its proclamation of martial law and restrictions on the press....The military and naval insurrection at Sevastopol is forcibly suppressed; the employees of the telegraph service throughout Russia go on strike; the union of railway servants resolves to declare a strike at the first attempt on the part of the government to mobilize troops.

November 30.—The Spanish cabinet resigns.

December 1.—A demonstration of Socialist unemployed workmen in London is checked by the police.

December 2.—A new Spanish cabinet, with Señor Moret as premier, takes office.

December 3.—Parades of Social Democrats at Dresden and Chemnitz are dispersed by the police.

December 4.—The resignation of the British cabinetis presented by Premier Balfour.

December 5.—A general strike of railway employees in Russia is averted by the action of the authorities in reversing a court-martial sentence of death on a strike leader.

December 6.—The French Senate, by a vote of 181 to 102, adopts the bill for the separation of Church and State....The German budget is presented in the Reichstag.

December 9.—Another mutiny of Russian troops is reported in Kronstad....Mr. Balfour opens the Unionist campaign in opposition to the British Liberals.

December 10.—The British Liberal cabinet formed by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman is made public at London (see pages 20 and 33)....Krustalev, the leader of the Russian League of Leagues, is arrested by the police of St. Petersburg.

December 11.—Lord Rosebery, in a speech before the council of the British Liberal League, refuses to support Home Rule and urges the new cabinet not to rely on the Irish vote for support.

December 13.—The first provincial election in the

Province of Saskatchewan, Diminion of Canada, results in a Liberal victory....The French minister of the colonies signs a measure providing heavy penalties for slave trading in West Africa.

December 14.—The Cuban House meets to discuss the killing of Congressman Villuendas.

December 15.—The German Reichstag passes a bill to construct a new railway in German Southwest Africa.

December 17.—A general strike is declared in Russia; insurrection is reported as spreading in the provinces and mutinies among the troops....The Italian cabinet resigns after the defeat, in the Chamber of Deputies, of the commercial agreement with Spain.... The Grecian cabinet resigns.

December 18.—Mr. Balfour, the leader of the British opposition, announces himself a free-trader, but adds that he sees no inconsistency in retaliatory duties and fiscal union of the colonies.

December 19.—All the workingmen's organizations of Russia approve the proposition for a general political strike to begin on December 21....The Hungarian Diet meets and is immediately prorogued.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

November 21.—Austrian, Italian, French, and British warships are ordered to the Piræus to force Turkey to grant the Macedonian reforms.

November 22.—The Porte rejects the proposals of the powers for the international control of Macedonian finances.

November 25.—Copies of the Russo-Japanese peace treaty are officially exchanged by Ambassador Rosen and Mr. Takahira at Washington.

November 28.—Secretary Root decides that the Isle of Pines belongs to Cuba, and urges Americans there to respect the Cuban republic's sovereignty....The allied fleet of the powers takes possession of MityleneMarquis Ito declares that there will be no spoliation of Korea under Japan's protectorate.

November 29.—Herbert G. Squiers resigns as American minister to Cuba and is succeeded by Edwin V. Morgan...It is announced at Tokio that the Japanese legations at Washington, London, Paris, Berlin, and St. Petersburg will be raised to the rank of embassies.

December 5.—It is announced that the Turkish Government decides to accept in principle the demands of the powers regarding the Macedonian reforms.

December 7.—Dr. Bebel, the Socialist leader in the German Reichstag, attacks the government's foreign policy as exciting the distrust of other nations.

December 9.—Venezuela and Brazil sign protocols regarding the settlement of the long-standing boundary dispute.

December 11.—Italy takes steps to force Venezuela to agree to a settlement of the Italian claims....A large Persian force threatens to seize a disputed section on the Turkish frontier.

December 15.—The Porte having formally yielded to the demand of the powers for the financial control of Macedonia, it is announced that the international fleet will be withdrawn from Turkish waters.

December 16.—Premier Rouvier's Moroccan policy is sustained in the French Chamber of Deputies by a large vote.

December 19.—Germany expresses regret that the officers and men of the cruiser *Panther* overstepped proper forms at Itajahý, Brazil.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

November 21.—The new United States battleship *Virginia* reaches a speed of 19.73 knots, the highest record for an American battleship.

November 25.—Samuel Gompers is reëlected president of the American Federation of Labor.

November 26.—A great gale on the coasts of Great Britain and Ireland causes many wrecks and much loss of life.

November 28.—The national committee on the proposed change of the Presidential inauguration day agrees on the substitution of the last Thursday in April for March 4...The Committee on Student Organizations of Columbia University abolishes the game of football as at present played...The Great Lakes are visited by a severe storm; many vessels are wrecked and many lives lost....The directors of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railway authorize that road's extension to the Pacific coast.

November 29.—The princess royal opens the London labor tents for the unemployed under the auspices of the Church Army (see page 40)....Richard A. McCurdy resigns the presidency of the Mutual Life.

November 30.—The two-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of the settlement of the Jews in the United States is observed in New York City.

December 4.—The Jews of New York City observe a day of mourning for their murdered coreligionists in Russia.

December 5.—A banquet is given to Mark Twain on his seventieth birthday.

December 7.—Ten persons are killed in a railroad collision in Wyoming....An important national conference on immigration is held in New York City under the auspices of the National Civic Federation.

December 9.—The Nobel prize for the advancement of peace is awarded to Baroness Bertha von Suttner; for medicine, to Prof. Robert Koch; for chemistry, to Prof. Adolph von Bayer; for physics, to Prof. Philip Lenard; and for literature, to Henryk Sienkiewicz.

December 10.—The centennial anniversary of the birth of William Lloyd Garrison, the anti-slavery agitator, is widely observed....The new Cunard turbine liner Carmania, the first vessel of the kind destined for New York, arrives off Sandy Hook....It is announced that Captain Amundsen, the Arctic explorer, having made the Northwest Passage, will continue his voyage until he has circled the polar regions (see page 81).

December 11.—Pope Pius X. holds a secret consistory and creates four new cardinals.

December 12.—The American Woolen Company announces an increase of 10 per cent. in the wages of thirty thousand employees, to take effect on January 1, 1906.

December 13.—The engagement of Miss Alice Roosevelt, daughter of the President, to Representative Nicholas Longworth, of Ohio, is announced at the White House....President Pritchett, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, resigns to devote all his time to work as president of the Carnegie Foundation.... Charles A. Peabody is elected president of the Mutual Life Insurance Company of New York....George W.

Perkins resigns as vice-president and chairman of the finance committee of the New York Life Insurance Company.

December 18.—The officers of the Chicago National Bank, the Home Savings Bank, and the Equitable Trust Company, institutions headed by James R. Walsh, resign in favor of representatives of the Chicago Clearing House Association; depositors are paid in full.

December 19.—The Salvation Army in England receives from George Herring a gift of \$500,000 to carry out its scheme of home colonization.

OBITUARY.

November 23.—Daniel E. Bandmann, the German tragedian, 65....Prof. Sir John Burdon-Sanderson, M.D., F.R.S. (Oxford), 76.

November 24.—Nahum Meir Schaikewitz, a popular Yiddish novelist and playwright, 56.

November 25.—Mrs. Mary Kidder, the well-known American hymn-writer, 86.

November 26.—Former Judge Charles E. Dyer, of Milwaukee, 71.

November 27.—Ex-Chief Justice Isaac M. Blodgett, of the New Hampshire Supreme Court, 70....Gen. Joseph Lancaster Brent, of the Confederate army, 98....Marshall Field, Jr., of Chicago, 37.

November 28.—Joseph Swift Whistler, a well-known art critic of Lenox, Mass., 45.

November 30.—Rev. Ensign McChesney, D.D., of Syracuse University, 60.

December 1.—Dr. Ambrose L. Ranney, of New York City, 57.

December 2.—Sir Clinton Edward Dawkins, partner in the London banking house of J. S. Morgan & Co., 46.

December 3.—John Bartlett, compiler of "Familiar Quotations," 85.

December 4.—Samuel Adams Drake, author and historian, 72.... William J. McMurray, M.D., president of the Tennessee State Board of Health, 63.

December 5.—James Russell Parsons, Jr., American consul-general in Mexico City, 44....Capt. Woodbury Kane, of New York City, 46.

December 6.—William H. Thompson, treasurer of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition Company, 75.

December 8.—United States Senator John H. Mitchell, of Oregon, 70....Grand Rabbi Zadoc Kahn, of France, 66.

December 9.—Sir Richard Claverhouse Jebb, Regius professor of Greek and member of Parliament for Cambridge University, 64....Henry Holmes, formerly a well-known English musician, 56.

December 11.—Edward Atkinson, the well-known social and political economist of Boston, 78....Prof. George W. Miltenberger, a well-known Baltimore physician, 87.

December 14.—Gen. Herman Haupt, a veteran of the Civil War and a well-known civil engineer, 88.... William Sharp, the English writer, author of the works published under the pseudonym of "Miss Fiona Macleod," 50.

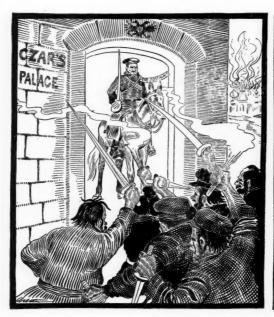
December 17.—Prof. S. Stanhope Orris, of Princeton University, 70.

December 18.—Gen. Rafael Gonzales Pacheco, for many years prominent in Venezuelan politics, 50.

CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



THE LAST CONCESSION, -WILL IT STOP THEM ?-From the Journal (Minneapolis).



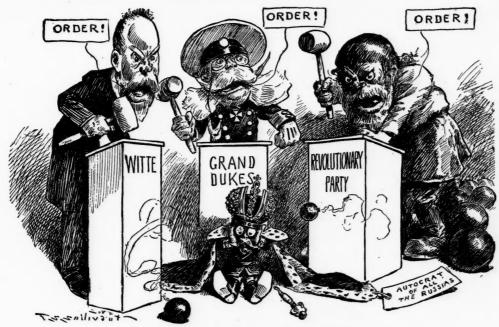
ROYALTY'S LAST HOPE.

The Czar does not doubt the unswerving loyalty of the Cossack.—St. Petersburg cable.

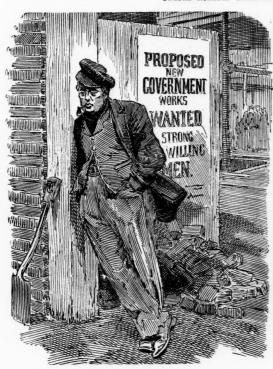
From the Inter-Ocean (Chicago).



Korea absorbed by Japan's little blotter. From the Press (Binghamton).



UNITED RUSSIA.—From the American (New York).



THE UNEMPLOYABLE.
(Dedicated to Lord Rosebery.)
From Punch (London).



THE OPTIMIST.

ABDUL HAMID: "What! all the fleets coming here? That will be fun! I do hope they'll have fireworks!"

(The powers have decided on making a naval demonstration in case the Sultan should continue obstinate on the Macedonian difficulty.)

From Punch (London).



BRAZIL DEFYING A DARK CLOUD. From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



THE AMERICANIZATION OF AMBASSADOR CASASUS.

The Mexican Chauvinists are criticising their ambassador at Washington for being too pro-American.

From the Ahuizote Jacobino (Mexico City).



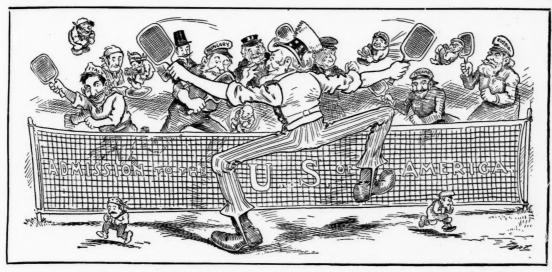
PUZZLED!

Shade of De Lesseps (to Uncle Sam): "Sorry for you, old man. I've been through it all. You have my sympathy."

From the Press (Philadelphia).



THE ISLE OF PINES LOOKING FOR SHELTER.
From the Press (Binghamton).



GETTING TO BE A PRETTY STRENUOUS GAME FOR UNCLE SAM.—From the Journal (Minneapolis).



At last the Bear breaks through all bonds.



The Czar and Witte present the manifesto. Will that be enough to satisfy \min ?

THE CONSTITUTION MANIFESTO. From Kladderadatsch (Berlin).



GENDARME (Emperor William): "I thought I heard a strange noise in your house. Do you want any help?"
THE CZAR: "Thank you. Everything is going for the best."

GENDARME: "I'm sorry."

From Pasquino (Turin).



CRISP PASSAGES FROM THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE. From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



WHAT WILL THE VERDICT BE? From the Leader (Cleveland).



HIS FAVORITE AUTHOR. From the Chronicle (Chicago).



THE SQUARE DEAL.
From the Spokesman-Review (Spokane).



THE NEW ENGLAND SHOEMAKER WANTS IT ALL,—THE TAIL WITH THE HIDE.

From the Spokesman-Review (Spokane).



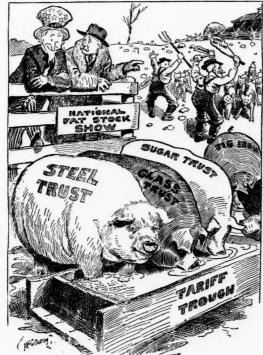
IT IS ANNOUNCED THAT GOVERNOR LA FOLLETTE WILL GET ON THE SENATORIAL ALLEY.

From the Tribune (Minneapolis).



MR. RYAN TO MR. HARRIMAN: "There ain't goin' to be no core!"

(Apropos of Mr. Harriman's attempt, as explained before the insurance investigation committee, to persuade Mr. Ryan to let him join in the purchase of the Equitable's stock.)



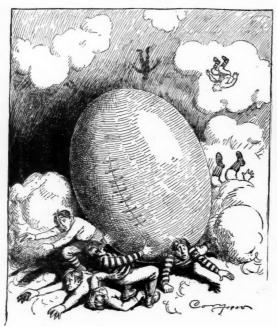
UNCLE SAM'S ENTRIES TO THE FAT-STOCK SHOW.

UNCLE SAM: "Yes, them's my prize hogs, and I reckon
they can't be beat."

"Yes; but don't you think you ought to give the little ones a show for a while?"—From the Tribune (Chicago).



MORE CALAMITY IN THE SOUTH. From the Constitution (Atlanta).



THE NEW JUGGERNAUT.
From the Evening World (New York).



"THE EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCE OF MODERN FOOTBALL."

From the Tribune (Chicago).



Nero: "No more of those tame gladiatorial fights; football is the real thing!"

From the Brooklyn Eagle (New York).



PRESIDENT BUTLER, OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, GIVES A GOOD KICK-OFF.

From the Spokesman-Review (Spokane).



"NOT THE KIND OF 'BRAVERY' THAT WILL MAKE THE NAVY FAMOUS."—From the Record-Herald (Chicago).

THE LIBERALS AGAIN AT THE HELM IN GREAT BRITAIN.

BY W. T. STEAD.

THE British constitution, which is not a constitution at all, is full of anomalies, paradoxes, and contradictions, but of all its curious and unexpected eccentricities there is none so amazing as the race-horse rapidity with which

it provides for a complete change of the government of the empire. In almost every department, the constitution is slow in its movements and cumbrous in its action. But in the achievement of that constitutional revolution which is involved in the ejection of the entire personnel of the central government and the transfer of all authority from one party to its political opponent the British constitution surpasses all others in the speed and facility of its operation. John Bull, who provides checks and counterchecks against any rapid alteration in his political arrangements, and who often seems to think it more important to provide a brake than to create a motor, in this one supremely important crisis sacrifices every-

thing in order to render it possible for him to change his ministers in an irreducible minimum of time.

When the month of November closed, Mr. Balfour, supported by a majority of 76 members in a House of 670, was prime minister of the King. Every office in the state was held by Unionist ministers of his own appointment, all of whom were loyal in their support of the administration, which under himself and his uncle, Lord Salisbury, had governed the empire since 1885, with three years' intermission from 1892–95. His authority there was none to dispute.

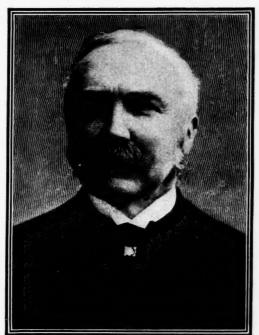
The Parliament elected in 1900 had still another year of life. His working majority in the House of Lords was ten to one. The by elections, it was true, had been going steadily against him for the last three years, but a working majority

of 76 bears a good deal of nibbling, and so long as it remained faithful no one could force a dissolution. The majority of the British newspapers, every morning and evening, proclaimed the excellence of his rule and vied with one another in describing the sad catastrophe which would overwhelm the country if the opposition, by any sad mischance, were to return to power.



In the first days of December, however, Mr. Balfour decided that he had had enough of it. He had spent the last two years in balancing himself upon the tightrope of ambiguity between the protectionist and the free-trade sections of his own party.

Mr. Chamberlain had become impatient, and, in response to an urgent appeal from Mr. Balfour to prolong the period of indecision, had emphatically hoisted the banner of a tax on American and foreign wheat in order to give half-a-dollar a quarter preference to the wheat of Canada. Mr. Balfour thereupon incontinently resolved to resign. He did not consult his party. He intimated his intention to his cabinet, and then, on Monday, December 4, he placed his resignation in the hands of the King. On the same day, the King sent for Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and appointed him prime minister in Mr. Bal-



SIR HENRY CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN.
(The Liberal Premier of England.)

four's place. By the following Monday the new prime minister had got together his cabinet, and had submitted their names to the King for his approval. Approved they were, and forthwith the retiring ministers surrendered the seals of office, vacated their respective departments, which were promptly taken possession of by their successors, and, hey, presto! the great transformation act was done.

It had all the suddenness and the unexpectedness of a scene in a Christmas pantomime. In less than a fortnight the whole personnel of the central administration was changed. Every office was handed over from politicians of the Conservative party to their Liberal opponents. From bottom to top, no vestige of the old ministry was left in existence. No revolution could have made a cleaner sweep, and in every government office power was transferred to the men who for the last ten years have been constantly in opposition more or less violent to the men whom they replaced. Yet so perfectly is the machinery of the British constitution braced up to secure this rapid transfer of power from party to party that in no part of the empire, at home or oversea, was there even a momentary arrest of the normal functioning of the administration, no jar in the subtle workings of the mechanism of finance. The empire had changed its rulers without strain or friction. months ago, Mr. Balfour declared that, whenever the dissolution came, it would come like a thief in the night. It would be more accurate to say that when he found he could no longer postpone a dissolution his whole administration disappeared with the silence and celerity of a thief in the night. Britishers, who are painfully conscious of the bungling delay with which their political machinery often works, may be pardoned for a little complacency when they contemplate the one occasion in which the rapidity of its movements beats even revolutionary records.

WHY MR. BALFOUR RESIGNED.

Mr. Balfour's action in resigning instead of himself dissolving Parliament was a smart political maneuver, unhappily too characteristic of his decadence. The Liberals naturally desired that the country should have an opportunity of going to the polls on the clear issue raised by the record of ten years of Tory administration. They regarded Mr. Balfour and his party as being in the dock, and before they took office they wished to have the verdict of the country returned by the votes of the electors. But this, for equally obvious reasons, Mr. Balfour wished to avoid. By resigning now, he compelled his opponents to undertake the task, first of form-

ing a new administration, with all the risks which it involves of personal slight and sectional differences, and, secondly, of facing the risk of any untoward incident arising in the next few weeks which might be used against the new-born government. It also would enable them to obscure to a certain extent the real issue before the country. Instead of simply voting for or against Mr. Balfour and his administration, they would be asked to express their opinion upon a new ministry, which had not had any opportunity of giving the country a taste of its quality. But as Mr. Balfour could not be compelled to stay in when he had made up his mind to go out, and as it was such a relief to get rid of him on any terms, the Liberals consented to face the disadvantages of taking office before the dissolution. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman accepted the King's commission and at once set about forming a government.

For a moment Mr. Balfour's maneuver seemed as if it were about to achieve a small measure of success. The Unionists, being themselves hopelessly divided on the question of the tariff, pinned all their hopes upon dividing the Liberals by raising the old war cry of the union versus Home Rule. It was known that Lord Rosebery, despite the fact that he had held office at one time as Home Rule premier by virtue of the Irish vote, had become an apostate from the faith. He had carried with him in his desertion the few but influential members of the Liberal League, which he had formed just as the Boer war was ending, to enable him to stand out before the nation as the one indispensable leader of the Liberal party. A certain section of the Nonconformists, irritated at the way in which the Irish members had supported the denominational educational policy of the government, had weakened in their devotion to Home Rule. Many electors who had left the Liberal party when Mr. Gladstone became a Home Ruler had been forced back into its ranks by their disgust at the jingoism of the Unionist government, but they had not in any way abated their dislike of Home Rule. It was believed that when the Liberals set about the business of constructing their cabinet and framing their policy divergence of opinion on the Irish question could not fail to manifest itself, and then a Liberal party, split by Home Rule, might be defeated by a Unionist party split by protection.

The Liberal leaders, however, were well aware of the calculations of their opponents. They knew that they themselves were of one mind on the issue of free trade versus protection, and on that issue they were determined the election must be fought. On the subject of Irish policy



SIR EDWARD GREY. (Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.)

they were equally agreed in recognizing the impossibility of carrying a Home Rule bill through the House of Lords unless after an appeal to the constituencies on the direct issue, for or against Home Rule. That had been the issue in 1895, and the response of the country had been unmistakable. Until an equally clear and emphatic expression of opinion in favor of Home Rule were given by the country, the House of Lords would undoubtedly reject the bill. Home Rule in the coming Parliament was therefore an impossibility. But as the Liberal party was pledged to Home Rule, when they can carry it through, they were bound to do all that they could in the new Parliament to bring the Irish administration into harmony with Irish ideas, and so to pave the way for the ultimate triumph of Home Rule when the conditions of the constitutional game rendered this a possibility.

The whole matter was carefully discussed between Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and Mr. Asquith. A thorough agreement was established. The terms in which the Liberal policy in relation to Ireland were to be announced were communicated by Mr. Asquith to his fellow-Liberal Leaguers, Mr. Haldane and Sir Edward Grey, and were by them entirely approved. Then Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, addressing his

constituents in Stirling, made public the accepted declaration of Liberal policy in Ireland, —Mr. Haldane following suit almost immediately after. Their joint declaration made no stir. It was expected, and was indeed inevitable under the circumstances.

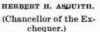
THE MAKING OF THE CABINET.

As Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman-whom it is customary to describe briefly as "C.-B."proceeded with the formation of his cabinet he was agreeably surprised to find that he was confronted by none of the difficulties which Mr. Balfour had hoped would prove so embarrassing to the Liberal leader. His colleagues rallied around him with perfect loyalty, and, in a fashion rare in the formation of cabinets, showed no disposition to insist upon being appointed to the posts which they fancied. There was not a single instance in which any of the incoming ministers made the appointment to any particular post the condition of his adhesion to the ministry. Neither was there any hitch as to the programme.

Owing to the fact that the Liberals had been out of office since 1895, there were very few survivors of the old previous Liberal cabinet still in Parliament. Lord Rosebery, by his disagreement with the other Liberal leaders on the question of Irish Home Rule, had rendered himself impossible. Lord Spencer, who at one time seemed likely to be the Liberal premier, was hors de combat. Lord Ripon was too old for any active work; Sir Henry Fowler, although seventy-five years old, has vigorous health, but as he had practically done nothing for his party for ten years, he ought to have been shelved, but had to be placated by a sinecure. Sir Charles Dilke, another ex-Liberal minister, had done nothing for that rehabilitation of his character which he himself had publicly promised should take place. Mr. Acland and Mr. Arnold Morley were no longer in Parliament. Of his former colleagues, the prime minister could only muster Lord Tweedmouth, who will be the Liberal leader in the House of Lords; Lord Burghclerc (formerly minister of agriculture and Lord Carnaryon's brother-in-law), Mr. John Morley, Mr. James Bryce, Mr. Herbert Gladstone, and Mr. H. H. Asquith. As cabinets contain from sixteen to nineteen members, there was plenty of room for new blood.

In arranging his cabinet, Sir Henry had only one serious difficulty to overcome. This was the conviction entertained by Sir Edward Grey that Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, who is now sixty-nine years old, ought to retire to the upper house. To be prime minister and leader







SIR ROBERT T. REID. (Lord Chancellor.)



THE EARL OF ELGIN.
(Secretary of State for the Colonies.)



HERBERT J. GLADSTONE.
(Secretary of State for Home Affairs.)

of the House of Commons is a serious tax upon the health of the strongest man. The Liberals were dangerously weak in the House of Lords. What, then, was more natural than that Sir Henry should take a peerage and be prime minister and leader of the upper house? Sir Edward Grey was convinced that this was the best arrangement, so convinced that it was not only the best, but absolutely the only workable, arrangement, that he point-blank refused to join the ministry unless Sir Henry did go to the upper house. Sir Henry and the Liberal party as a whole held the other view. Sir Edward Grey was quite sure he was right. And as Sir Henry did not see his way to oblige Sir Edward and disoblige all the rest of the party, there seemed no way out of the deadlock. Fortunately, however, the difficulty was happily surmounted. Sir Henry is to go to the House of Lords some time, but for the present he remains in the House of Commons and Sir Edward Grey becomes secretary of state for foreign affairs.

This little hitch having been happily surmounted, the work of cabinet-making proceeded apace, and on December 11, seven days after Mr. Balfour had resigned, the new administration was practically complete.

MAKE-UP OF THE NEW MINISTRY.

The following brief description of the personnel of some of the new ministers, whose power will be most significant to Britain and America, may not be without interest to Americans:

Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, the prime minister, is a Scotchman, like Mr. Balfour and Mr. Gladstone. He has sat thirty-seven years

without a break for the famous Scotch town of Stirling. He is sixty-nine years of age, married, but with no children. He would have been elected Speaker in 1893 but for the veto of Lord Rosebery, who did not wish to lose his secretary for war. It was on a vote of censure on his conduct at the war office in regard to the supply of cordite for small-arms ammunition that Lord Rosebery's government was defeated on a "snap" division in 1895. "C.·B." was selected as leader of the opposition in the Commons on the retirement of Sir William Harcourt, in 1897. Since then he has kept the party together and led it to victory. He incurred the fierce denunciation of Tories by the sturdy and uncompromising way in which he opposed the unjust war in South Africa. He is a stout, tough, imperturbable, honest Liberal of the old-fashioned school, who has always played the game and played it straight. He is devoted to peace, is a good friend of America, has always been a strong advocate of the French alliance,—which he regards as the traditional policy of Scotland,-detests the attempt to make bad blood between England and Germany, is in favor of an entente with Russia. and loathes militarism with his whole soul.

Sir Edward Grey, the foreign minister, ranks next to the prime minister in the importance of his office. He is not a Scotchman, but a Northumbrian whose estates lie within a few miles of the Scottish border. He is the chairman of the Northeastern Railway, which is one of the three great routes to Scotland. He is forty-three years old, and has no children. He is the cousin of Earl Grey, the governor-general of Canada. He is a clear and forcible speaker. He served

his apprenticeship in administration as under secretary to Lord Rosebery, and went with the royal commission whose report was the basis for the efforts of Mr. Chamberlain to improve the condition of the forlorn British colonies in distant parts. The chief fault in his character as a politician is that he is much more interested in his gardens and in his fishing than in politics. He is a member of the Liberal League, and has declared himself in favor of the Japanese alliance and the French entente. He may be as steady and as good a foreign secretary as Lord Lansdowne, and he is pledged to carry on the policy of his predecessor.

Mr. Herbert H. Asquith, chancellor of the exchequer, deputy leader of the House of Commons, is a capable man of the law, fifty-three years old, with good forensic capacity for debate. He was an able home secretary in the last Liberal administration, and he will be Sir Henry's successor as leader of the House when "C.-B." goes to the House of Lords. He is a man without enthusiasm, and has aged much of late years by trying to combine the practice of the law and the pursuit of society with political life. Al though not a Scotchman, but a Yorkshireman, Mr. Asquith, like Mr. Morley, sits for a Scotch constituency.

Lord Elgin, the secretary for the colonies, is a staid, sensible Scottish peer who made a respectable viceroy of India and a painstaking president of the Royal Commission on the South African War. He also helped, as head of the commission, to settle the difficulty occasioned by the decision of the House of Lords as to the property of the Scottish Free Church. Much will depend upon who is his under secretary in the Commons. Lord Elgin is married.

Mr. John Morley, as the secretary for India, is an appointment dictated more by the necessity for providing a high enough office for so distinguished and influential a man than from any innate capacity or acquired knowledge of Indian affairs on the part of Mr. Morley. Mr. Morley was Mr. Gladstone's lieutenant and is Mr. Gladstone's biographer. As an administrator he will be painstaking, and as a platform speaker and a deliverer of set orations he is admirable. But it is to be hoped that there will be no grave internal or external crisis in India during his stay at the India office. He is sixty-seven, married, but childless. He was a stanch pro-Boer, and is a stalwart Home Ruler.

Mr. Richard B. Haldane, the secretary of state for war, is a Scotchman with German training and Jesuitical temperament, with a natural gift for intrigue ripened by much exercise,—a man in whom many people believe and more people distrust, but who believes supremely in himself. He is forty-nine, and unmarried.

Mr. James Bryce, the chief secretary for Ireland, is the only Irishman in the cabinet. He is a Scottish Presbyterian from Wales who sits for Aberdeen, having left Ireland so long ago that most people believe him to be a Scotchman. The post is uncongenial. Mr. Bryce is one of the ablest men in the government, but he is not tough enough for the Irish office. Mr.



DAVID LLOYD-GEORGE.
(President of the Board of Trade.)



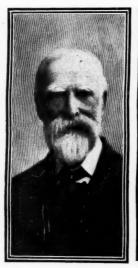
LORD TWEEDMOUTH.
(First Lord of the Admiralty.)



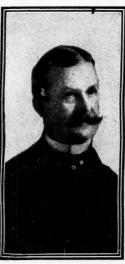
RICHARD B. HALDANE.
(Secretary of State for War.)



JOHN MORLEY.
(Secretary of State for India.)



JAMES BRYCE. (Chief Secretary for Ireland.)



LORD CARRINGTON.
(President of the Board of Agriculture.)



SYDNEY C. BUXTON. (Postmaster-General.)



JOHN BURNS.
(President of the Local Government Board.)

Bryce is sixty-seven, and married, but childless.

Mr. Herbert J. Gladstone, who was whip, or party manager, for the opposition, is the son of Mr. Gladstone, and one of the few English members of the cabinet. He sits for Leeds, is fifty-one years old, and has recently married. He wanted to be first lord of the admiralty, but he was generally marked out to be home secretary. He is a hard-working, straightforward Liberal, with little of his father in him but his name.

Sir Robert T. Reid, the lord chancellor, is a Scot of the Scots, a pro-Boer of the pro-Boers, and a Liberal of the Liberals. Probably no more stalwart Radical ever sat in the Woolsack.

Lord Tweedmouth, leader of the House of Lords, first lord of the admiralty, is a Scotchman, Marjoribanks by name. He served his apprenticeship as Liberal whip in the House of Commons. He is well connected socially, a man competent rather than capable, married to Lord Randolph Churchill's sister, and fifty-six years old.

Mr. David Lloyd-George, the president of the Board of Trade, is a very witty, wiry Welshman who has fought his way up by sheer pluck and indomitable energy. He is the leader of the Welsh people and the spokesman of the Noncomformist revolt. No one put up so gallant a fight as he did for the Boers in the late war. He is forty-two years old, married, with children.

Mr. John Burns, the first Labor member to enter an English cabinet, is a Scotchman who sits for a London constituency. He is so well known on both sides of the sea that it is unnecessary to say more than that he is a sound pro-

Boer, a stanch free-trader, an extremely good speaker, and a downright honest man. He is forty-seven, and has a wife and one child. As president of the Local Government Board he will have to deal with the unemployed and poor-law reform.

It is not necessary to say anything about the other members of the cabinet, but we pass at once to the more important outsiders holding office but not within the charmed circle.

The most important of these is Mr. Winston Churchill, who is thirty-one years old, whom "C.B." at one time designed to admit to the cabinet as postmaster-general. On second thought, and in full agreement with Winston, he decided to give him the most important post outside the cabinet, that of under secretary for the colonies. The latter post has placed him in the position of being representative of the colonies in the Commons, and will pit him against Mr. Chamberlain on all debates on preference. Next to him comes Lord Aberdeen, who goes back to Dublin as lord lieutenant with his wife to represent to the Irish the good-will of the Liberals to their nation.

Besides these there are the law officers of the crown, and a whole fry of under secretaries. But it is the men named above who give the administration its distinctive characteristics. It is an administration which from top to bottom is Scotch. The leaders in both houses are Scotch. The lord chancellor is Scotch. So are the secretaries of state for the colonies and for the war office. The chancellor of the exchequer sits for a Scotch constituency. So do the secretaries for India and the chief secretary for Ire-

John Burns is a Scotchman. The only land. Englishmen not connected with Scotland in the cabinet are more or less "stuffing." The one brilliant new Englishman is a Welshman.

THE POLICY OF THE NEW GOVERNMENT.

The policy of the new government is clearly indicated by the policy which its members pursued in opposition. In foreign policy it will do its utmost to carry out the principle of continuity. It will repudiate none of its predecessors' engagements. Sir Edward Grey will take up the foreign policy of Lord Lansdowne at the point where he dropped it, and will endeavor so to act that no one at the other end of the wire will know there has been any change in the personnel of the administration. In colonial policy it will welcome every overture made by the colonies for a closer union with the mother country, but it will scrupulously refrain from any attempt to force the pace of federation. It will hold the colonial conference which Mr. Chamberlain hoped to use as a protectionist weapon, but it will point to its majority recorded at the coming election as rendering all discussion of preferences based on food taxes absolutely futile. In South Africa it will hurry up the grant of responsible government both in the Free State and in the Transvaal. It will probably begin by sending out a commission to inquire into-(1) the unpaid compensation claims, (2) Chinese labor, and (3) the establishment of responsible government.

In Ireland it will, as Mr. Chamberlain has said, have a policy of Home Rule by installments. It

will do everything the Irish Nationalists demand that can be granted without forcing a breach with the Protestant prejudices of the House of Commons or provoke the veto of the landed interest in the House of Lords. The question of the evicted tenants and of the Catholic University stand in the forefront. No opportunity will be lost to advance in the direction of Home Rule, and everything will be done to conciliate the Nationalists, who possess a voting strength of 83 in the House. If this be transferred to the Conservative lobby, it makes a difference of 166 in the Liberal majority.

In home affairs it will be primarily engaged in amending the Education Act and the Licensing Act of its predecessors. The veto of the House of Lords will render it impossible to carry out in full the wishes of the Nonconformists and the temperance reformers. But it will do what it can in both directions. The question of the unemployed and the whole subject of the treatment of the poorer classes will be one great crux of the new administration. It may deal with the land laws, but not at first. Nor is it likely that it will attempt to disestablish either the

Welsh or the Scottish Church.

The navy will be maintained at its present The army expenditure will be restrength. duced, and, if Mr. Haldane is fortunate, reduced very considerably. There will be a strong movement in favor of general physical training of the whole nation, but conscription will be treated as a thing abhorred. The volunteer forces will be developed, and a determined effort made to make the regular army efficient.



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EARL OF CREWE. (Lord President of the Council.)



THE MARQUIS OF RIPON. (Lord of the Privy Seal.)



AUGUSTINE BIRRELL. (President of the Board of Education.)



SIR HENRY H. FOWLER (Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.)

ENGLAND'S PROBLEM OF THE UNEMPLOYED.

BY AGNES C. LAUT.

I.

'HRISTMASTIDE full flood in England; but not for the vast and ragged army of the unemployed! Not for the ghastly processions, -12,000 men and boys in line,—under flags with inscriptions like the snarl of a beast at bay. "Curse your charity!" "Give us a chance! "We don't want charity; we want justice!"
Give us work, not alms!" It is a hideous specter, this problem of England's unemployed, the Phantom at the Feast,-able-bodied men willing and anxious to work driven desperate with want, literally fainting in the streets from hunger, in the center of the richest capital in the richest empire of the world. It meets you everywhere, -Anxious Fright, Want, Rags, Hunger, flaunting their shame in your face, unashamed because they are desperate. You notice a ragged man running abreast your cab, one, two, three, four miles, perhaps half the length of the city. To beg? No,-on the chance of getting twopence by keeping your skirts from touching the wheel when you step from the cab. Or you hear singing outside your window. Organ-grinders? No: but able-bodied workmen in fluttering tatters, an old newspaper across the chest in place of shirt, boots that soak up the filth of the street like a sponge,able-bodied workmen under the draggled flag, "Unemployed," singing some ballad of "Merrie England" on the chance of pennies from the windows. Or your cab is caught in a jam at Charing Cross. What is the excitement that draws the crowd? "No excitement," your London friends assure you-"it's only a procession of the unemployed; and we're getting used to Or you pick up the daily paper. Ten columns to politics; one-column interview with some great man on the ways to alleviate distress: notice of a commission to investigate the poor laws,-a work, by the way, which will take years; report of the Queen's Fund for the Unemployed, -which, except for two small amounts, has not, at the time of writing, been distributed; and tucked away in obscure type such items as the death of a man on the Embankment from starvation, or the suicide of a woman because she could not bear the cry of her children for food. Or you follow the reports of the police court.

Constable said he heard the prisoners addressing a crowd of the unemployed, giving utterance to such ex-

pressions as "Stick together, boys!" "Curse their charity; we want work!" "We want work, and no aristocratic humbug!" Constable warned them to go away, but they refused. Traffic was obstructed, so he took them in custody. Questioned by the Lord Mayor, prisoner replied: "Undoubtedly we refused to go away. We have tried honestly to get work, but have been hounded down." The Lord Mayor: "I have nothing to do with that. What have you to answer to the charge?" Prisoner: "I have been treated worse than a brute. If we cannot get work, there is nothing but death." The Lord Mayor: "I won't listen to that sort of abuse of the public. They are doing their best for the honest unemployed. This is the sort of reward you give the public. I cannot do less than fine you twenty shillings each, or fourteen days' imprisonment."

Need we ask what the attitude of those prisoners will be toward justice when they come out of prison? The country is taking better care of them because they broke the law, is taking better care of its thieves and penitentiary birds and murderers, than it does of the houseless wanderers, who flit like shadows of an under-world, dumb with hopelessness.

II.

But it would be a mistake to give the impression that nothing is being done. I venture to say that such a wave of public awakening never passed over England as the sympathy now at work for the unemployed. The Queen's Fund for the Unemployed has now reached half a million dollars, and will be still larger by the time these words are in print. I should not care to say in round numbers how many thousand destitute people the Salvation Army is nightly feeding and housing; and the Rev. W. W. Carlile's Church Army, to which the Morning Post's Embankment Home Fund goes so helpfully, is doing everywhere in England what the Salvation Army has been famed for doing. In the church, in the street, at the club, over afternoon tea and elaborate dinners, the unemployed have become the absorbing topic of conversa-They have even been elevated to the somewhat meretricious importance of being used as a football by the politicians, and an excuse for the red flag with the death's head by the fools, frumps, and idiots who make up the ranks of anarchy. "Put on a protective tax to build up our own manufactures and so give the unemployed work," advocate the Unionists. "Yes, put on a tax and make bread dearer for the starving," retort the Liberals. "Down with

capital and up with the red flag!" clamor the agitators. May I be permitted to say that all these remedies seem to me equally sincere? Meanwhile, as a poor woman out in Whitechapel answered, staring round on her starving children in an attic bare of everything but pawn tickets—bare even to the nakedness of her own shivering body and her children's, "Meanwhile, we starve!"

Nightly, two thousand men, wan, shivering, faint with hunger, huddling together for warmth, clad only in tatters of clothing, line up on the Kingsway for the midnight meal given by the Salvation and Church armies. Where are the wives and sisters and children of these men? The last procession of the unemployed numbered some twelve thousand. Deduct two thousand for the fakirs, who marched smoking pipes under flags of poverty. You need no proof that the other ten thousand are genuine unemployed. Hunger is written in their faces. Taking each marcher as representing three dependents, where are the thirty thousand women and children for whom these ten thousand are unable to earn bread? Nightly, the Salvation Army shelters open to the long lines of waiting destitutes outside the door; but the shelters can accommodate only a few,-two or three hundred beds in each shelter. When the doors close there are still long lines outside, men and women, homeless, hungry, half-clad,-I saw one woman on a wet, cold night in Whitechapel bare to her breast,-men and women who sleep on the wet pavements till the police give orders to "move on."

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After seeing the procession of the unemployed, whose rear was composed of several hundred hoodlums, the red flag of anarchy, and a guard of police, I think I asked every English person I met for three weeks about the problem. Explanations of the cause would require such a five years' commission as the government has appointed on the poor laws. On that I shall not touch. Outside General Booth's pamphlet, there are no suggestions for remedies. National works, stone-breaking, reclamation of waste lands, can only be regarded as palliatives, not remedies, for conditions that throw out of employment one hundred thousand people in England alone during a single year. Inquiry as to whether the evil were increasing or decreasing elicited such contradictory answers that I determined to ascertain for myself, and drove to the Salvation Army headquarters in the East End.

Destitution, said the officer, who has been in charge of that district for twenty years, is on the increase,

and for this reason: work is just as scarce; but last year and the year before, work was as hard to get; but the people had their little savings to keep them from the workhouse and the street. This year, the savings are all exhausted. As you will see [handing me a package of official reports made by personal investigation], eliminating entirely the question of the unfit and those who wouldn't take work if they could get it, not counting professional paupers, and taking only people who have never before asked aid and always before earned their living, with certificates of good character from the last employer, there are thousands of families who do not possess a thing on earth but the rags on their backs and the pawn tickets of the dismantled homes—men and women who are desperate for work.

Out of those who pretend to be desperate for work what proportion do you find are fakirs?

I'll answer that by a single instance. The other night a great crowd of men stood all night in the rain and cold on the docks. These were not the usual dock hands. They were men who had nowhere else to go. Without letting them know we were coming, our battalion went across just before daylight with breakfast for five hundred and took the address and story of each man. While they were still at breakfast, we sent off another battalion with the addresses to investigate each man's story before he had time to go home. Out of five hundred, only two were undeserving.

It is not in the power of pen to transcribe the tragedies of the personal investigations made by the army. There was the old man who for seven years staved off want by odd jobs, only to be dispossessed by the Specter at last, when husband and wife applied to a local prison for shelter, where the woman died,—"of chill," the record says; of starvation and heartbreak would. perhaps, be truer. There was the skilled worker on boots, an exceptionally good character, "mother's boots in pawn for food, nothing left to pawn." Or there was the day laborer, "four children under fourteen, bedclothes in pawn, furniture all sold for food, wife ill of consumption." Or the case of the plumber, "six children under twelve, everything sold and pawned for food and rent, blankets and boots still in pawn, boy kept home for lack of clothing, children all ill from result of wet and cold." the day laborer, "seven children under fourteen, everything in pawn, no blankets, no boots, child dving of want." Another report ends pathetically with the words "everything, even husband's shirt, in pawn; this woman is bewildered."

Is it any wonder? All England is bewildered at the spectacle of good workmen ground down into the vortex by no fault of their own. The official reports contain the names of all cases and addresses which I do not give; and the list might be continued down into the tens of thousands.

I hurried from the men's shelter. It is not good to see thousands of able-bodied men, hunger in their faces, something between mad-

ness and resentment in their eyes, clinging to their place in the line of homeless wanderers waiting for a twopenny dinner. I could not but wonder how long such conditions could last without turning workmen into paupers and paupers into professional criminals or anarchists, for hell could not be worse than the life these men are living now, and the prison would be at least a shelter. As General Booth recently said, when men need work and can't get work, a remedy must be found, or there will be revolution.

Piloted through the dark, foggy lanes by Salvation Army soldiers, I came to the women's shelter. About that I do not like to let myself think. The day before I had been looking at the glorification of womanhood in pictures of the Virgin by old masters. And this was womanhood too, -womanhood in a Christian land, this long line of ragged, emaciated, shivering humanity waiting for the army shelter to open and let them in. These were not paupers, mind you! They are women who work when work is to be got, and never beg, and pay twopence for food and shelter in the lodgings. There was no loud talking, no flaunting of this destitution in your face. There was just a very terrible numb silence in front of the door. Inside a large waiting-room were some two hundred women resting before the supper. There were old and young, but all branded with the same terrible stamp of kinship-Want, Weariness, Hunger. These women do sixpenny and twopenny jobs, when they can, and by boarding at the shelter for twopence manage to exist. I say "exist." It is not living; and if it were not for the different shelters they would be sleeping on the pavements. Even with all the multitudinous charities of London, hundreds of men and women are nightly shut out for lack of room. How against such odds they retain shreds and patches of decency is a mystery to me.

All the Queen's Fund, the Salvation Army, the Church Army, and the Distress Committees are doing is but as a sieve put up to check a mill-stream. Supposing the Queen's Fund should reach a million dollars (it is only over a hundred thousand pounds now), and you feed the unemployed to-day,—they must be fed to-morrow, and the day after, and the year through. The same may be said of the other agencies for help. The only help that is help must place the unemployed on the impregnable rock of self-support.

It is absurd to say that as this, that, and the other condition improves the thing will remedy itself. It is not remedying itself. It is growing worse; only we are getting used to it. Whatever the cause, there is the bald fact—there are

more workers than there is work; and this, for some strange reason, calls up to mind the great Northwest, where millions and millions of acreslie valueless, without a possessor, not worth a cent to the government because there are not the people to work the lands. What! fill Canada up with English paupers? I fancy I can hear the outcry of indignation from Atlantic to Pacific in my native land; and with good reason. If England insists on manufacturing paupers by her atrociously bad poor laws, Canada has nowish to be the dumping ground for London slums.

But this paper does not deal with paupers at all. It deals with men and women desperate for the privilege of work. It deals with men who would rather walk the streets all night in rain and cold, and sell the shirts off their backs, than ask for charity. Men of the soil, men of muscle, toilers, like those old Scotch farmers thrown out of employment a century ago when the landed estates were turned into sheep-runs and Lord Selkirk sent the first of settlers from Scotland to the Northwest. It must not be forgotten that the very raison d'être of the pioneer settlers in the Northwest was a great body of unemployed in Scotland a hundred years ago. To be sure, there are thousands to-day where there were hundreds then; but if a million unemployed workers were poured into the Northwest there would still be room for ninety million more without having neighbors at closer quarters than a mile.

While General Booth,—who, a former British premier declares, is the only person who can solve the question of the unemployed,—advocates emigration as the one remedy for conditions, he has not, that I have seen, especially specified Canada.

Details of transportation, of caring for the immigrant till he garnered his first crop, of discriminating workmen from paupers, would have to be worked out; but England is in the mood to work out the question. The care of the immigrant for a year would probably divert Daughters of the Empire from squabbles over flags, and church ladies from making curates' slippers for South Sea Island missions; but the results would justify the diversion. As for the discrimination between paupers and workmen, I think that if the fact were thoroughly known that the forty-below climate of the Northwest is not only cold, but will literally, physically, icily, freeze a man stiff unless he work like a fury, the question of paupers would solve itself. Scorpions would not drive the charity-fed pauper to such a land of work. The workman would go: for there is his salvation.

THE STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS OF 1905.

BY VICTOR S. YARROS.

IT is a sort of truism that strikes are concomitants or symptoms of prosperity rather than of industrial adversity. The theory is that men do not take serious risks on "a falling market," and that, as a rule, demands for wage advances, shorter workdays, and other improvements are made upon employers when their profits are substantial and their trade prospects bright.

The year 1905 has been a prosperous one, and employment has been abundant. Certain sections, especially in the South, have actually complained of a scarcity of labor in manufacturing industries. But the period of readjustment that a revival of activity ushers in must have been well advanced when the year opened, for the twelvemonth under review has been characterized by comparative freedom from warfare really disturbing to national production and enterprise.

Strike statistics, like other statistics, may be used in a loose, misleading way. There are strikes and strikes, and a few labor-capital contests of one kind may be infinitely more significant—or ominous—than scores of strikes of another kind. To determine the place of the year 1905 in a philosophical history of the industrial and social movement, it is necessary to estimate properly the character of the conflicts it witnessed, in addition to knowing their number and distribution.

According to the report of the secretary of the American Federation of Labor, there were 1,157 strikes during the year ended October 31. The record for the calendar year 1905 cannot be materially different.

The figures are distinctly surprising at first sight, but one must bear in mind that the great majority of the strikes of any year wholly escape, not only general, but even local, attention. It is somewhat reassuring to learn that not more than 107,000 working men and women were involved in the total number of strikes The inference from this item of information coincides with the general impression that, in a comparative sense, to repeat, the year has been tolerably peaceful. It has been an extraordinary one, nevertheless, in the fundamental truths it has brought home to organized labor. It has taught the public many lessons, though the important sigkes-those that were more than local issues-may be counted on the fingers of one hand.

The year opened auspiciously with the settlement, by mediation and arbitration, of the stubborn Fall River cotton-mill contest. Governor Douglas, who had the confidence of the operatives, induced them to make important concessions, and work was resumed in January at a reduced rate of wages under a promise of a subsequent increase if the price of cotton goods should justify it. The satisfactory adjustment of "the greatest strike in the history of the textile industry in America" was a notable achievement, for which Governor Douglas received high praise, and it should have materially strengthened the cause of conciliation and arbitration. (Recently, by the way, the wages of the cotton operatives were increased and another strike happily averted.)

THE NEW YORK SUBWAY STRIKE FIASCO.

Perhaps it had that effect, but, unhappily, it did not prevent the incomprehensible and disastrous subway-elevated strike in New York City, which occurred in the first days of March. This affair, foredoomed from the start, collapsed within five or six days. It might have injured the interests of organized labor gravely and deeply, but thanks to the right and courageous attitude of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers and the Amalgamated Association of Electric and Street Railway Employees,—national organizations to which the local unions involved in the strike owed allegiance,—no such deplorable result followed.

The strike in question was ordered against the Interborough Company, of which Mr. August Belmont was (and is) president. Mr. Belmont had just been elected head of the National Civic Federation and had taken an advanced position in favor of conciliation and arbitration in industrial difficulties. What grievances, if any, the strikers had was never made clear; at any rate, they acted abruptly, rashly, and, so far as the motormen in the company's service were concerned, in direct violation of a contract.

The officers of the local unions, in ordering and defending the strike, in demanding shorter hours for all the employees of the company, higher wages for all except the motormen, and the abolition of physical tests in favor of "practical road tests," assumed an attitude that was inconsistent with the principles and traditions of the national associations named, the officers

of which were ignored and defied. It is true that the strikers accused the company of bad faith and violation of its agreement with their unions; but the charge was not substantiated by any specific, plain allegations, and, in any event, arbitration should have been proposed by the local leaders in harmony with the spirit

of their agreement with the company.

After the strike had been precipitated contrary to the advice of the chiefs of the national organizations, the latter were brought upon the scene by the representatives of labor in the National Civic Federation, and the five thousand striking engineers and motormen were ordered back to work. The strike, in a word, was repudiated by the national organizations. It had forfeited public sympathy by the needless hardships it had inflicted upon the hundreds of thousands who depend for transportation upon the subways and the elevated systems, as well as by the lack of any substantial grievance or cause for complaint. The strike went to pieces, and the defeated unionists realized their blunder. They also realized the danger of breaking collective contracts and of disregarding the opinions of national leaders, whose position, experience, and responsibilities tend to render them cautious and reasonable.

In commenting upon this melancholy episode the National Civic Federation Review remarked upon the "interesting paradox" it presented.

While many arguments in favor of the trade agreement by its advocates were nullified in this instance by the headstrong local leaders, the upholding before all the country of the responsibility of labor for its contracts is a lesson so valuable in itself and so beneficial to the cause of industrial peace as to make the outcome of defeat in reality a victory. This lesson is well worth all its cost.

It is gratifying to record the fact that influential organs of union labor did not hesitate to condemn the strike and vigorously criticise the course of the local leaders. One said that the defeat was richly deserved, while the *United Mine Workers' Journal* expressed itself as follows:

A strike cannot be won unless the reason for it appeals to public sympathy, and bad faith does not so appeal. A strike must be based upon grounds of justice and reason, and to remedy conditions that will bear the scrutiny of the just and the misrepresentations of the unjust. The subway strike lacked these essential features and failed.

THE CHICAGO TEAMSTERS.

The practical unanimity with which the New York affair was condemned, and the moral drawn therefrom, did not, however, serve as a preventive of another strike of infinitely greater

importance, one which was obscure in its origin, amazing in its progress and complications, and incomprehensible in every one of its aspects and stages. The reference is to the Chicago teamsters' strike of last spring and summer, a conflict which remains unexplained to this day, and upon which grand juries, "commissions," editors, and impartial observers vainly attempted to throw light. It is believed that the grand jury which investigated this strike and made a grave but curiously one-sided report upon it knew more than it felt justified in revealing to the public, much of the evidence it had heard having lacked legally sufficient corroboration.

The facts may be very briefly recalled. strike broke out suddenly in April, immediately after the municipal election which resulted in the decided success of the municipal ownership ticket headed by Judge E. F. Dunne. It was ostensibly a sympathetic strike, called against one Chicago firm (a large mail-order house in the center of the city) for the purpose—so it was alleged-of compelling it to reinstate eighteen union garment workers it had forced out months before in alleged violation of a contract The garment workers had lost with them. their strike; they had repeatedly and movingly entreated the local teamsters to come to their aid by refusing to carry the goods shipped by or to the struck house, and had as often been turned away empty-handed; the teamsters had shown themselves indifferent, skeptical, distinctly averse to a course that seemed futile and Quixotic and absurdly belated; the garment workers, defeated and discouraged, had abandoned the effort to bring about the sympathetic walk-out. When it came, it produced astonishment and bewilderment. "What do the teamsters mean, and what are they after?" were the questions on everybody's lips. They were not answered satisfactorily.

Some said that the garment workers had secretly and corruptly overcome the objections of the teamsters' local leaders to a sympathetic strike, but this was a manifest absurdity. Aside from any moral question, the garment workers were too poor to purchase sympathetic strikes in doubtful support of a lost cause. Another and more popular theory, especially among the "radicals," was that the strike was the result of an anti-Dunne and anti-municipal ownership conspiracy; that, in other words, the traction interests and employers friendly to them had "induced" the teamsters' officers to order the strike and create industrial trouble and disturbance in the hope, of discrediting the new mayor and his street-railway plans. This theory involved fraud and bribery and other criminal

features, and reflected profound discredit on employers and labor leaders alike. It did not account for all the facts, and as the strike developed the objections to the theory increased in number and variety. Finally, there was the theory of unfair business competition as the real cause of the strike, and known practices of certain employers in Chicago (to which the grand jury, without mentioning names, referred in scathing terms) lent it ample weight and color.

Whatever the truth was, the strike was mischievous and grotesque. It became doubly so when it was extended to other firms and express companies that refused to boycott the mail-order house. There was considerable violence in its first stages; indictments were returned against local and national leaders, including President C. P. Shea, head of the teamsters' national organization, and charges of graft and corruption were rife. Negro strike-breakers were imported, and race prejudice intensified the bitterness of the strikers and their unionist supporters. The conflict resisted many attempts at compromise, and disgusted the community. At last the men capitulated, and the strike was called off on July The employers concerned in it had sustained heavy losses, but these were insignificant beside the material and moral losses of the teamsters' locals. It left a sorry heritage of animosity, criminal charges, indictments, and dislike of unionism. It had solidified employers' opposition to agreements with unions and to the exclusive union-shop contract. Some day we may learn the true history of it; at present it is an unpleasant memory and a "horrible example."

Since July, but two strikes have challenged national attention, and while neither is to be put in the category to which belong those just reviewed, both are alike theoretically and practically important on account of the issues they present and the effects they are likely to produce. I refer to the eight-hour strike of printers in a number of cities, and to the trouble in the building trades of New York growing out of the controversy between the American Bridge Company and the International Bridge and Structural Iron Workers.

EIGHT HOURS FOR PRINTERS.

The former difficulty has assumed the aspect of a controversy over the "closed shop." It was not originally the intention of either side to make that the issue. The national organization of the printers, pursuant to a resolution long since formed, voted last summer to establish an eighthour workday in all printing houses. The National Typothetæ, the employers' organization,

determined to resist this movement on purely economic grounds. It alleged that the demand was in effect a demand for a material increase of the printers' already high wages, and that the employers could not concede it without forcing unreasonably high prices on the public. The printers denied these assertions and took the position that an eight-hour day would injure neither the employers nor their patrons.

In presenting eight-hour-day contracts to the employers (which, by the way, many of them signed without strenuous protest), the printers incidentally stipulated for the recognition of the "union shop." This point was of secondary moment, however, and has practically been lost sight of in the contest, which is still in progress at this writing. The center of the strike is Chicago, where the employers have secured sweeping and unprecedented injunctions restraining the printers from approaching, following, visiting, or attempting to persuade non-union men to join the union and the strike; from "picketing" the shops even peaceably, and from interfering in any way whatever, direct or indirect, with the employing printers or their nonunion workmen. Some of the clauses of these injunctions have been severely criticised at a mass-meeting addressed by neutral citizens and in the local press.

The outcome of this struggle is uncertain. The strikers are claiming steady progress, but the employers declare these claims to be unfounded and misleading. The strike is national, and in all probability neither side will emerge from it completely victorious. It is orderly and devoid of sensational features.

BUILDING TROUBLES AGAIN.

The difficulty in the New York building industry involves confused issues of fact and of principle. The housesmith's and bridgemen's union has certain alleged grievances against the American Bridge Company, one of whose subsidiary companies at McKeesport, Pa., employed a number of non-union men about a year ago. The grievances led to a strike and boycott. A New York building firm is believed by the union above named to be interested in the American Bridge Company. A strike was declared against this firm in order to force the discharge of the non-union men at McKeesport. The firm, however, emphatically denies that it has any interest in the American Bridge Company, and, in any event, the strike against it is condemned as a deliberate violation of the arbitration agreement governing the relations between the members of the Building Trades Employers' Association and the powerful build-

ing trade unions. The association intervened in behalf of the building firm and tried to effect a settlement. Failing in that effort, it sanctioned the employment of non-union men by the complaining firm. This, in turn, resulted in an extension of the strike to other union men in its employ. After prolonged negotiations that ended in a sort of deadlock, the employers' association decided, as a last resort, upon a complete lockout of the unionists. Such a lockout implies the collapse of the whole arbitration scheme, the suspension of the peace agreement, and reversion to the condition of chaos and warfare which prevailed in the building industry prior to the adoption of the arbitration agreement in its original form, which was more favorable to the unions than that now in question. At this writing neither side is disposed to proceed to extremes, the employers protesting that they are fighting for the arbitration agreement, not for the "open shop."

There are rumors of a "conspiracy," of a deal between the officers of the bridgemen's union and a competitor of the American Bridge Company, and there are those who believe that the strike is corrupt in its origin. The union leaders treat these charges with contempt, and say that the Sam Parks tactics have no place in their plans and campaigns. Many of the employers, apparently, either accept these assurances of the unions or else are unwilling to incur the risks and losses of an aggressive fight for the arbitration scheme now so deeply compromised.

CHAOTIC LABOR LAW.

The year ends less happily than it began for the industrial world. In addition to the troubles referred to, there are clouds on the horizon in more than one direction. Another anthracite strike is feared in consequence of the demands for recognition of the miners' union and for an eight-hour day that are to be made next spring. In Chicago and in other cities, employers' associations are announcing open-shop policies for the future. The decisions in "labor" cases, especially in the Western courts, have been strongly anti-union, in the sense that practices claimed by the organized workmen as legal and necessary to success,-such as peaceable picketing, moral suasion of non-union employees, etc.,have been condemned as criminal. But labor is highly gratified at a decision of the New York

Court of Appeals unqualifiedly upholding closedshop contracts. This is indeed a notable union victory, in view of the continued prominence of the open-shop issue, and especially in view of certain earlier decisions in other States, according to which any closed-shop contract,—even one into which the employer enters voluntarily, absolu'aly without improper coercion on the part of the employees, and solely from motives of self-interest, - is illegal, void, and contrary to public policy. Employers' organizations have given these anti-union decisions wide publicity. They have used them as potent weapons in their general attacks on the closed shop, arguing that, as law-abiding citizens and lovers of liberty and justice, they could not sign or countenance contracts that tended to create monopoly in labor, contracts that discriminated against the nonunion workingmen and deprived them of opportunities to earn a livelihood.

Now, the New York Court of Appeals, in a case involving a typical closed-shop contract between a clothing firm and a local, destroyed that strong position by holding that the contract in question was perfectly valid, proper, and legitimate; that there was nothing in public policy to prohibit it, in the first place, or to render it void or even voidable at any subsequent stage; and that the violation of such a contract by the employer entitled the employees to damages for the resulting loss. It will, obviously, be difficult hereafter to base opposition to the closed-shop policy on high grounds of law, public pol-

icy, and fundamental principle.

The case, too, further illustrates and emphasizes the chaotic state of what may be called "labor law" in this country. Practices and acts which some courts severely condemn as vicious and reprehensible, other courts—sometimes in the same State even-pronounce wholly inoffensive and permissible. In these days of national and international unions it is often impossible for workmen to know where the limits of their freedom are, where they must stop in obedience to the law. One of the greatest needs in the sphere of industrial relations is more certainty in the law of labor, more coherence and harmony in judicial decisions and opinions bearing on the issues arising between the employers and the employed.

It cannot be said that the year 1905 developed any tendency toward such congruity or harmony.

A YEAR OF CANADIAN PROGRESS.

BY J. P. GERRIE.

POLITICALLY, economically, industrially, and in matters of religious significance the year just closed has been a most important

and fruitful one in Canadian history.

In provincial politics, unusual changes have occurred. In Ontario, a continuous Liberal rule of nearly thirty-three years was brought to a decisive close. So long an administration of affairs by one political party is perhaps without a parallel. The veteran premier, Sir Oliver Mowat, who led the government for a quarter of a century, seemed to be invincible. His legislation was wise and progressive, his conflict with the federal authorities invariably triumphant for him, and his long career without a blot or stain. Summoned, in 1896, by Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the new prime minister of the Dominion, to the "cabinet of premiers," and subsequently to the lieutenant-governorship of Ontario, a great void was left in the office which he had so ably filled. The Hon. A. S. Hardy, Sir Oliver's trusted first lieutenant, and a man of unquestioned ability, stepped into the breach, but illhealth soon caused his resignation, and, a little later, his death. The hopes of the Liberal party next centered on the Hon. George W. Ross, who had been Sir Oliver's minister of education, and one of his most effective campaigners. tial and competent critics have placed Mr. Ross at the very front among the platform speakers of the continent. His personal integrity, too, has never been questioned.

THE CHANGE OF GOVERNMENT IN ONTARIO.

From the standpoint of political power, Mr. Ross held the premiership amid evil days. The majority which he inherited was small, and the first general election held during his term reduced this almost to the vanishing-point. Then came the sensational charge by a member of the opposition that he had been bribed by one of the ministry to support the government. The matter was investigated by a judicial commission, and the accused minister exonerated, but, in the minds of many people, there remained grave misgivings. Other charges of electoral corruption at the polls were heard. These were few, and on the whole no more chargeable to one party than to the other. Yet, in view of the long tenure of office and the peculiar position of the government, they told against the Liberals. The Prohibitionists were also murmuring discontent because a further step was not taken toward the total suppression of the liquor traffic. After struggling along for a year or two with an almost impossible majority, Mr. Ross reconstructed his cabinet, and appealed to the country, early last year, to meet with an overwhelming defeat. The Conservative ministry, a novelty in the province, under the Hon. J. P. Whitney, has made a good start, and its further progress will be awaited with interest, and good will even of political opponents. The dismissal of certain license inspectors for seemingly no reason other than to bestow party rewards is at this present moment calling forth a good deal of unfavorable comment.

DOMINION POLITICS.

In Dominion national affairs the year will also be memorable. The general elections in the previous November resulted in a great Liberal triumph, and when parliament met, last March, Sir Wilfrid Laurier was more firmly intrenched in power than ever before. The session at once became interesting over a measure for the incorporation of two western provinces,-Alberta and Saskatchewan. A provision to retain separate schools was the bone of contention, and even good Liberals, who greatly admired Sir Wilfrid's skill in guiding the ship of state amid the shoals and the reefs of the Manitoba school imbroglio, were apprehensive that he was at last heading for the rocks. The speeches and debates were long, the protests and petitions many, but the measure was passed by a great majority.

What will the country say? was next queried. The first deliverance was the return by acclamation of the Hon. Frank Oliver, the new minister of the interior, from the heart of the scene of dispute. Later on, the Hon. C. S. Hyman, on assuming the portfolio of public works, was elected in London by a largely increased majority. Another election, however, was held on the same day, when the Liberal majority was greatly reduced. A few months afterward four more by-elections were held, which left the representations in parliament the same, though the Liberal majorities at the polls were smaller than in the general elections. In view of theschool dispute, great interest centered upon the first general elections in the new provinces. The first was held in Alberta, with an unprecedented sweep for the Liberals, the Conservatives securing only one seat, which is yet in dispute. The Saskatchewan elections, held on December 13, were less decisive, but gave the Liberals substantial majorities.

THE SCHOOL QUESTION.

It is clearly evident, therefore, that the new provinces, which were represented in the east as bound and shackled, are not impressed with a grievance. The school system will be that which has been in vogue in the territories,—separate and public schools having the same standards, and alike under provincial supervision. The section for religious instruction applies to both, and provides that the last half-hour of the day may be devoted to this purpose, should the board of trustees so decide. No child, however, will be compelled to be present against the parents' wish. The conviction grows, much as national schools might be desired by many, and in Dominion rather than in provincial form by the writer, that the government has been true to the constitution, while the principles of the public school are in reality maintained in the west.

INDUSTRIAL GROWTH.

Industrially, 1905 has been a great year for Canada. The new transcontinental line called the Grand Trunk Pacific was formally launched. This enterprise was the subject of two long debates in successive parliaments, and now there can be but one opinion,-that the undertaking will be of momentous import to the country. The west is growing by leaps and bounds, and present transportation is all too inadequate. The Grand Trunk Company, which has given splendid service in the older provinces, may be relied upon to push its vast project with speed and thoroughness, which when completed will be an incalculable factor in Canada's further development. Among the other industrial features of the year have been a greatly increasing immigration, harvests such as have never been, and work in nearly all departments of activity more than could be overtaken. And more, the present industries give promise of good and better times for years to come.

SALARIES OF PUBLIC OFFICIALS.

So encouraged were the legislators with Canada's outlook that before parliament was prorogued a notable increase was made in their own and the judge's salaries. The prime minister's allowance was increased from \$8,000 to \$12,000. This has not been criticised, and it is reported that it was at his own request that the amount was not made \$15,000. The salaries of the other ministers remain the same, but pro-

vision is made by which they, and all ex-ministers who have given five years' service in the ministry, will be granted a retiring allowance of one-half the salary received while holding cabinet positions. This feature has been roundly censured, but that something should be done was again illustrated a few weeks ago, when the Hon. A. B. Aylesworth retired from a lucrative law practice, bringing him perhaps many times the salary which he will now receive as postmaster-general. The only alternative would be to make the salaries more adequate and dispense with the retiring allowance. A new departure was made in granting the leader of the opposition a regular allowance of \$7,000, and this, too, has been loudly condemned, but it seems unfair that a man in this position, who must necessarily neglect his private business or profession, should not be remunerated for his public services. The increase of the sessional indemnity from \$1,500 to \$2,500 for members of parliament and Senators alike has also evoked a strong protest from different quarters, particularly with regard to the latter, and on the ground that in both houses there are those who do not give service for this amount. This may be true; but there are those who do give service, and in view of the increase, more faithful and regular service may be expected in time to come. Moreover, Canada, in her growing time, with an enormously increasing public business, should not fail in the generous acknowledgment of those who are faithful to her national affairs.

DENOMINATIONAL UNION.

In affairs of church the year 1905 will also be remembered. The writer contributed for the June REVIEW of REVIEWS a sketch of the movement to unite Presbyterians, Methodists, and Congregationalists in Canada. The subsequent months have been fruitful in committee work, and now a general gathering is called, but too late in the year for report in this article. Since that time, too, the Baptists and the Free Baptists of the maritime provinces have joined their forces. The United Brethren have also voted to come with the Congregationalists if a basis can be agreed upon. A conference has just been held by a joint committee from both bodies, and a declaration made that union is possible. The Church of England, through its General Synod, placed a ban on the marriage of divorced people. The Congregationalists have been wonderfully successful in winding up a movement, started two and one-half years ago, for the discharge of their mortgage indebtedness. nearly all denominations has been felt a revival of a stronger and more liberal evangelism.



A COMPANY OF NORWEGIAN SOLDIERS, MOUNTED ON THEIR SKI, READY FOR A LONG MARCH INTO THE ICY WILDERNESS.

THE NORWEGIAN "SKI" MANEUVERS.

I N defense, as in other matters, a nation usually adapts itself to climatic and other natural conditions imposed upon it, taking advantage of these wherever possible, and training its soldiers accordingly. For example, the troops of Holland go through intricate maneuvers on skates; the French, Italian, and Swiss armies maintain battalions of Alpine infantry, who are both crack shots and expert mountaineers, provided with ropes, ice axes, and alpenstocks; and the armies of Norway and Sweden have for ages been supplied with "ski" during the long Scandinavian winter.

As far back as the days of Magnus the Good, in the middle of the eleventh century, we hear how the Duke of Finmark, with his archers on ski, attacked and utterly defeated King Regner at his winter quarters in Bjarmeland,—a defeat which astounded the northern nations, who could not conceive how a snow-sliding rabble of bowmen could possibly vanquish trained soldiers who had overcome even the dreaded legions of imperial Rome.

The ski of Norway and Sweden are long slabs of wood ranging, according to fancy or requirement, from 6 to 10 feet in length and from 2 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches in breadth. All are curved upward at the toe, and to a lesser extent at the heel. They are attached to the foot, generally a few

inches behind the center, with a toe-strap and some thongs. In former days each province,—each district almost,—had its own type of ski; but nowadays there is a tendency to adopt a universal pattern suitable for all requirements.

Nevertheless, for racing, Alpine climbing, and ski-jumping,—a great sport in Norway nowadays,—special kinds are always needed. Swedish and Norwegian ski are referred to by many writers as snowshoes; but while this conveys a fair idea of the use to which they are put, it is not correct. The snowshoe is employed for walking purposes, while the ski, as its name implies ("ski" in Norway, "skida" in Sweden, meaning something which slips or slides), is designed for sliding and gliding movements, and probably came originally from central Asia.

To this day the savage Tchukchis living on the shores of Bering Strait and the Sea of Okhotsk use an instrument for locomotion something between the snowshoe of the American Indian and the long ski used by the Lapps and the Finns.

It is clear that ski have been used for ages, and for practical purposes; but, at the same time, the peasants of Scandinavia have for centuries indulged in leaping and racing competitions, which in recent years were adopted by the people in and about Christiania. The ski-jumping



THE SOLDIERS, ON HARD ICY GROUND, SHOULDER THEIR SKI AND MARCH UP TO THE PALACE AT CHRISTIANIA.

feats performed on the hill of Holmkollen, outside Christiania, are quite remarkable. The skiers slide down a slope at great speed, and then take a flying leap. The record was made three years ago with a jump of $134\frac{1}{2}$ feet.

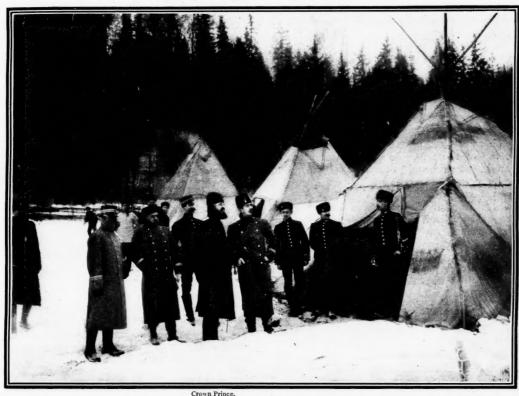
Norway and Sweden, being preëminently "Lands of the Snows," it was but natural that the military authorities should turn their troops into ski-ers. For nearly two centuries the modern armies of Norway and Sweden, as distinguished from medieval forces, have maintained permanent regiments of troops mounted upon ski, and stationed for service in regions where their presence would be most useful. Certainly, the Norwegian ski-troops had every advantage against the Swedes in the fighting that marked the early part of last century.

The wonderful dexterity, the swift marches, and the holding of snowy positions

thought to be impossible so impressed the powers of Europe in those days that, first, Germany, and then in turn Austria, Italy, and France, likewise mounted some of their Alpine troops on ski,—though, of course, not on the same scale as is



PITCHING THE TENTS AT A CAMPING-PLACE.



Crown Prince.

THE CROWN PRINCE OF SWEDEN AND PRINCE GUSTAV ADOLF INSPECTING THE CAMP OF THE SKI SOLDIERS, NEAR CHRISTIANIA.

the case in Sweden and Norway. The armies of both these nations carry out extended maneuvers on ski during their long and very snowy winter.

Perhaps the most interesting occasion is the so-called "three days' maneuvers," which takes place annually in the neighborhood of Christiania. The troops proceed to a given rendezvous on ski, and encamp in some suitable spot. From here scouting parties are often sent out on a tendays' march across the wildest and least-frequented parts of the country, where the only living things met with are bears and wolves. This cross-country march would be absolutely impossible to ordinary infantry,-much less cavalry, - no matter how light their equipment. Thus, it will be seen that an enemy not carefully equipped and trained in the use of ski would be utterly helpless in this country, and quite at the mercy of the native ski-mounted troops.

At the same time, it must not be supposed that this work is a picnic for Norwegian or Swedish troops; very far from it. In fact, they endure discomforts, and even meet with serious accidents, such as would altogether discourage

men from countries farther south. When mustered for the ski maneuvers, the men appear in heavy marching order, but, one is surprised to see, without overcoats; an Iceland shirt,—a very thick, knitted woolen garment,—being provided instead. It is quite as warm as a great coat, and does not impede the men's movements.

Their underclothing is of great thickness, and they wear special ski socks, which keep their feet very warm. When on the march, a halt, and rest of from ten to fifteen minutes is allowed each hour; for, as the men are supposed to make good speed even over loose and heavy snow, the march is found most arduous.

On arrival at their destination, the men are told off to cut poles, gather fir branches, scoop away the snow from the proposed site of the tents, and, finally, erect their temporary dwellings. The space being marked out by a noncommissioned officer, the snow is shoveled away to a certain depth, and the cavity filled in with a kind of flooring or carpet of spruce branches. Four long poles, fastened together at a fixed height, are then raised slantwise from each cor-

ner, and these, with the exception of a space at the top, are completely covered with sheets of

canvas laced together.

Inside the tent, suspended by wires from each pole, is slung a wire grating eighteen inches above the ground, and on this the firewood is placed, so that ere long a merry blaze is started; and the swinging fire, fed with air from every direction, soon makes the tent interior warm and cozy, even though it may be zero weather outside.

The smoke escapes through the aperture at the top of the tent. In order to prevent any draught entering, and to increase the warmth of the interior, the deep snow is heaped up outside the tent and pressed against the sides.

Just before the icy, northern dawn the men are called forth with bugles, and it is well worth seeing when a whole regiment of men stoop to fasten on their ski. The thing is done in a moment, and the men lined up as if by magic waiting for orders. Sometimes, if the maneuvers are very near Christiania, one may see a large party of men suddenly shoulder their strange and apparently cumbersome footgear and march down to the palace over a hard road, on which it would not be possible to use the ski to advantage.

As is the case with the Alpine troops of Italy, France, and Switzerland, there are sham battles between the armies of the snows. A whole country-side may be attacked and defended, and often enough heavy field guns are brought into action, on which occasion deep tracks must be dug out of the snow to allow of the guns being placed in position. The gunners are directed in



A QUICK MARCH OVER THE FROZEN SNOW.

action by an officer, who may be watching the operations almost up to his middle in snow.

Parties of sharpshooters go gliding here and there over the treacherous snow-crust; and the weird, unearthly-looking, silent landscape is suddenly torn, as it were, by the sharp volleying of musketry and the roar of field guns. It is an inspiring sight to see one side trying to maneuver for a better position than the enemy's, and the officers do not spare themselves, but work, if possible, even harder than the men.

One may often see a party of officers at lunch or dinner out in the open air in the deep snow,

seated on boxes, and with a packing-case for a table; while in the background their ski, upended in the snow, stick forth like a protective chevaux-de-frise. The soldiers are often under canvas for a fortnight at a time: but in the event of a winter campaign, they would, of course, have to go into regular winter quarters, for up in these northern latitudes the thermometer may often sink to fifty degrees below zero.

The speed attained by the men on ski has often been exaggerated, no doubt owing to the rapidity with which a snow-slope can be descended. When the



HOW THE ARMY OF THE SKI MOVES ITS ARTILLERY.



THE ARMY ON SKI WOULD HAVE TO FIGHT BATTLES UNDER CONDITIONS LIKE THESE.

(They have dug tunnels out of the snow to allow their field guns to be placed in position.)

troops are engaged in cross-country maneuvers, it is doubtful whether they will do more than five miles an hour. Of course, in races, scouting competitions, and the like some of the best infantrymen, lightly clad and under special conditions of snow and weather, have done as much as eight and one-half and nine miles an hour. The record long-distance military ski-runner is a Lapp, who, at Sokkmokk, in Sweden, did 137 miles in 21 hours 22 minutes, or an average of about $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour.

Last year, a detachment of the Norwegian Guards accomplished a march of 125 miles on ski in $7\frac{1}{2}$ days,—an average of $17\frac{1}{2}$ miles a day through very difficult snow. This must be considered a very good performance, considering that they carried canvas for the tents, as well as sleeping-bags and a full supply of provisions. Moreover, the country was exceedingly difficult, and caused the men to glide up hill and down dale, ascending more than once a mountain height over 4,000 feet above sea level.

In 1903, 115 officers and men of the Swedish Norbotten Regiment, after six days' exhausting maneuvers on ski, made a forced march home of over forty three miles in twenty hours, although

the men were extremely tired, and the snow was in a wretched condition. The great advantage of the ski, of course, is that great bodies of infantry are able to move across a snow-buried country where those not so provided would be entirely helpless and compelled to remain idle.

Of late years ski have been put to another and very curious military use in both Sweden and Norway; for in cases where it has been found desirable for scouting parties of ski-ers to make high speed, horses have been employed to drag



SKI-DRIVING,—SHOWING HOW OFFICERS, SCOUTS, AND MILITARY MESSENGERS IN A GREAT HURRY TRAVEL QUICKLY.

the men along. This "ski-driving," as it is called, is only practicable, however, on roadways beaten down, or else on very compact snow with a solid crust. Otherwise the horse cannot pass, or is greatly impeded. Under favorable conditions, however, two, four, or six scouts will glide along with curious effect behind a galloping horse, going ten miles an hour.

Much amusement was created in Christiania, last season, when the "daughter of a regiment,"—the little daughter of an infantry colonel,—followed the troops upon ski, drawn merrily

along by her own pet bulldog.

Much difficulty is experienced in Norway and Sweden in the matter of transport and the carrying of field guns and wheeled vehicles across snow-clad ground. It seems that no satisfactory solution of this problem has yet been found, although it is a serious military matter, for infantry on ski cannot be supported by artillery unless kept in close touch with the highways. Nor can food, elothing, or ammunition be dispatched to troops in remote regions, except in small quantities.

At present field artillery is transported bodily on sledges, so as to follow the army on ski; and the doctors, with their assistants, accompany the regiments with "first aid" necessaries, and ambulance sleds mounted on ski runners. It is a curious sight during the maneuvers to see prostrate "wounded" men being hauled swiftly over the frozen wastes to the nearest military post or camp.

The medical officers who haul these ambulance sleds are furnished with snowshoes instead of ski, for it has been found that these enable them to drag the sled more evenly and with less risk to the sick or wounded. It should be borne in mind that while ski, for speed and comfort, are the superior of the two, they are in certain conditions more awkward to manage and give less reliable foothold and grip on the surface than snowshoes. Mounted on these latter, the ambulance men can haul the wounded up the steepest slopes without any risk of the sled and its helpless burden breaking away and slipping down a precipitous incline.



"FASTEN ON SKI"-MEN GETTING READY TO MARCH AT THE WORD OF COMMAND.

THE REDEVELOPMENT OF AN OLD STATE

BY SYLVESTER BAXTER.

N one of the old States of the Union there is a curious conjunction of long-settled conditions with wilderness and frontier. Maine was one of the earliest regions to attract immigration from the older parts of New England. The movement set in shortly after the Revolutionary War. Maine was then a Massachusetts province. But in recent years it has had a name for emigration rather than immigration. Three hundred thousand natives of Maine are said to be living in other parts of the United States. Nevertheless, something has offset this tendency. Maine lost population in the decade from 1860 to 1870, doubtless an effect of the Civil War. Since then the State, as a whole, has steadily grown. In the new West we see the wilderness developing, rich virgin lands coming under cultivation, busy new cities humming with industry. In this old New England State we have the same phenomena. It is the fruit of railway enterprise; the building of new lines into the waste places; the development of natural resources, -agriculture, timber-supply, water-power,—the creation of industries where Nature calls for them because the chief raw material

Maine's magnificent wilderness,-woods and

rivers, hills, lakes, and clear-running streams,—
is a great natural playground for the country at
large. But these things mean more than play,
—they mean great industrial possibilities under
modern conditions. More than five thousand
rivers and streams, with more than fifteen hundred lakes for their reservoirs, stand for vast
possibilities in the way of power.

THE POTATOES OF AROOSTOOK.

In this long-settled State there is still in its northern part something like four thousand square miles almost unimproved and uninhabited. -more than two million five hundred and sixty thousand acres unutilized. This is called the most extensive virgin field for development on the Atlantic slope. Fifteen years ago, north of a line drawn something like midway across the State from west to east by the Maine Central and the Canadian Pacific systems, only thirty or forty miles of railway had been built. A great part of this territory is in Aroostook County. It had already been shown that the agricultural possibilities here were great, for soil and climate made it one of the best potato-growing regions in the world. But capitalists were incredulous as to a primitive wilderness in the

near-by East. At last local capital had the courage to build the Bangor & Aroostook Railway. It paid handsomely from the start. It is now the most important independent railway system in New England. It has two trunk lines extending to the Canadian frontier, and numerous major and minor branches reaching out for the traffic offered at advantageous points, nearly five hundred miles of railway built through a new country as alive, wideawake, and full of energy as any hustling Western region. Over ten million bushels of potatoes were shipped in 1904. The great Aroostook potato fields are impressive to see; undulat-



DIGGING POTATOES BY MACHINERY IN AROOSTOOK COUNTY, MAINE.

ing expanses of dark verdure often extend as far as the eye can reach,—a strange spectacle in a region where one instinctively looks for unbroken forest. Aroostook farmers are rich,—their houses, often architecturally tasteful, like first-class suburban homes, have all the modern conveniences, including electric lights.

MAINE'S TIMBER RESOURCES.

Lumber is here a traffic resource even greater than the potato. Diverse lumber industries are springing up everywhere. The building of the railway increased average land values 250 per cent. Timber lately worthless is proving of value. For example,—two calamitous fires devastated vast tracts many years ago. The conifers were exterminated, and the land grew up to birch, despised, though magnificent in size. But spools are made from birch, and a great business in converting the timber into spool-bars has developed. These are exported by the steamer-load to be worked up in Scotland for the great thread mills. Rock-maple, once merely good firewood, is now in great demand for last-blocks.

The rivers and streams, and even the brocks, are practically railway branches in the Maine wilderness. Upon them float the logs for lumber-making or for wood-pulp. Wood-pulp and paper represent the greatest modern industrial development in Maine. The chief raw material is close at hand; the spruce and poplar logs are floated down the water courses to the very gates of the mills. These transportation routes also

supply the water-power. In its colossal scale this industry illustrates the economies possible under huge operations. Investments of millions are demanded before one of these great concerns can start work. Under one direction are the manufacturing operations and all the various subsidiary activities,—the control and regulation of streams for water-power and the transportation of logs; great masonry dams for power purposes, and other dams to raise the level of the lakes that, serving as reservoirs, prevent a power famine in dry months; the ownership of the forests to assure a source of raw material.

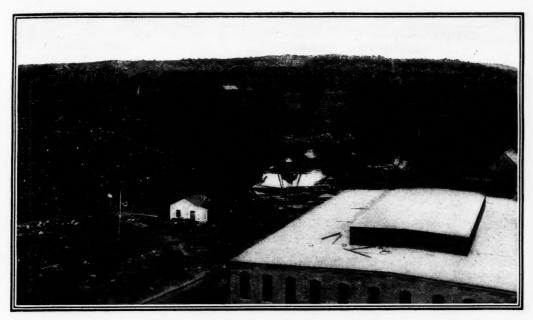
WOOD-PULP AND FORESTRY.

There is a common impression that the woodpulp industry is one of the greatest menaces to our forests. This is widely believed to be devastating the woodlands to meet the insatiable demand for paper. The contrary is actually the case. Among the best guarantees for the perpetuity of the forests are the enlightened policies adopted in recent times by this industry. A leading paper manufacturer said to the writer:

We would be veritable fools if we went to work and destroyed the very fountain-head of our industry. We have invested millions in our plant of substantial buildings, costly machinery, big dams, and turbines. If we should destroy our source of supply our plant would be worthless. After a few years we should have to abandon it and move elsewhere for another supply. This would bankrupt us. So from the very start we make our calculations to assure permanence. Our mill needs a tremendous water-supply, both for power purposes



AN AROOSTOOK GRAIN FIELD.



FOR THE PULP-GRINDERS: TWENTY MILLION FEET OF SPRUCE LOGS STACKED AT MILLINOCKET.

and in making paper. Hence, we have to look after the streams and lakes, which are also cheap thoroughfares for transporting our material. If we destroyed the forests we should lose our supply of spruce logs, and ruin our water-power by making it irregular and undependable. It would mean not only "After us the deluge;" there would come also the drought, and that would be still worse.

This manufacturer's company took pains to secure at the outset the ownership of three hundred thousand acres of forest lands berdering the rivers and their tributaries that were to furnish the motive power for two proposed great mills,-a territory extending back for hundreds of miles into the northern wilderness. Then the Forestry Bureau of the national government was applied to. A corps of experts was sent into the Maine woods. The fruit of two or three years' work was an accurate survey, close studies that gave the company an exact knowledge of what trees grew on every acre, together with a scheme for the scientific and economical management of this vast estate. It cost much money, but the outlay proves most profitable. The plan assures a perpetual timber supply. No tree under nine inches in diameter, breast-high from the ground, is cut. At the end of sixteen years the spruce growth will have renewed itself. Then the same ground can be cut over again, vielding about the same as before. The management of the forests is intrusted to a special department. Under this plan the entire three hundred thousand acres will have been cut over every sixteen years. Under the short-sighted, old-time policy of cutting out all the spruce, large and small, the supply never renewed itself; the worthless firbalsam took its place. Under scientific management the young growth is always springing up. The conservation of the forest is best assured by ownership in extensive tracts, either by great corporations or by a government, — national, State, or municipal. The private corporation, from motives of enlightened self-interest, deals with its holdings as a permanent investment. The government conserves the forest for the public interest and follows economic lines in its administration.

PAPER-MAKING IN THE WILDERNESS.

The largest paper-mill in the world is that of the Great Northern Paper Company, at Millinocket. At a point on the west branch of the Penobscot great water-power possibilities were discovered a few years ago. It was found possible to divert the waters so as to give a drop of one hundred and fifty feet into a tributary called Millinocket stream and produce 25,000 horse-power. A busy town of about three thousand inhabitants sprang up almost under the shadow of Mount Katahdin, where five years ago there was nothing but forest. Millinocket is equipped with all the features of a modern municipality,—water-supply, sewerage, electric lighting, good

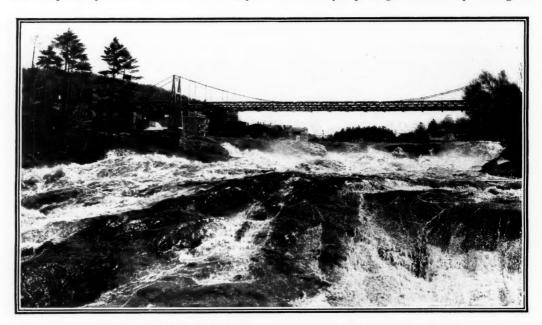
schools, a high-class hotel. The town is dependent upon one great paper-mill. This consumes the entire 25,000 horse-power from the riverand more, too. The operations require an energy of 30,000 horse-power, all told. Five thousand of this comes from steam, necessary not for motive power, but for the heating and "cooking" operations of paper-making. For steam-generation fifty thousand tons of Pocahontas coal a year are consumed. The pulp-grinding machinery makes the heaviest demand upon the waterpower, consuming 20,000 out of the available 25,000 horse-power. The maximum output is much greater than from the average power. For the period of high water there is an extra battery of "grinders" that turn out vast quantities of pulp against paper-making needs in the season of drought. Ten thousand tons of pulp-sheets are stacked in the yard for this purpose. The output of this mill is from 160 to 180 tons of news paper a day, shipped in cars direct from the mill to all parts of the country.

The establishment of this great industry in the heart of the wilderness furnishes an argument for the opponents of railway rate-making by the national government. The enterprise depended upon whether the freight rates charged upon the output would enable them to compete with other paper-makers nearer the markets. The railway management at once agreed upon an exceptionally low rate that meant only a

slight profit. It was figured that ample compensation would come from the "back-haul" of supplies for the mill and the large community to be built up; also from the general development of the region thus encouraged. But had the desired rates been regarded as a precedent for correspondingly low rates on commodities that offered no such inducement,—as might be demanded under governmental rate-making,—the railway management would not have consented to the proposition.

A NEW TOWN FOUNDED ON "PAPER."

Wherever a river with rapids and falls runs between banks of favorable contour we have the potentiality of power and industry. Such a place is Sprague's Falls, on the St. Croix River—the southeastern frontier of Maine. Here is one of the early settled regions of Maine and New Brunswick. Calais is hard by; on the Canadian side of the river lies St. Stephens. A section of one of the oldest railways in the United States runs past the falls,-now absorbed in one of the newest lines in Maine, -the Washington County Railway., Being a coast line, this railway had to meet the competition of little schooners and their low rates. The company became bankrupt, and the line, joined to the great Maine Central, became a part of the yet greater Boston & Maine With its improved traffic possibilities, system. the railway is putting a new face upon things in



WHERE THE ANDROSCOGGIN PLUNGES THROUGH RUMFORD FALLS, BELOW THE CATARACT.



A VIEW OF THE MILLINOCKET PAPER-MILL, LOOKING EAST.

the once flourishing but lately decadent coast country. A large pleasure-travel has developed; the movements of sportsmen, — hunters and fishermen, — make this traffic last practically throughout the open months. Local habits are changing all along the line. The arrival of a schooner at a little port meant the laying in of storekeepers' and household supplies for months ahead. Now the people are learning to depend upon all-rail transportation. Fresher supplies are obtained more frequently and in less quantity. Better railway facilities are also encouraging local industries; prompt transportation in carload lots direct to destination offsets for many products the low rates for water-borne freights.

The valley of the St. Croix, on both sides of the international boundary, is a vast forest, spangled with big lakes and rich in untouched spruce. This, combined with water-power, spells "paper." Capital has been quick to perceive the fact, and much of the capital has come from the Canadian side; lumbering has meant riches at St. Stephens, and the New Canada is alert for industrial opportunity. So the new town of St. Croix is growing up at Sprague's Falls. Here we have the combination of hustle and thoroughness characteristic of industrial construction by wholesale. With the opening of last spring a swarm of workers camped upon the site, building the massive mills, the big dam forty feet high, a new railway branch and a new bridge, and the completely designed new town, its streets slashed through thickets of fir-balsam and spruce. St. Croix starts with thorough municipal equipments,—tastefully built cottages, restrictions on lots, and for the permanent reservation of a higher-class residential district a public park by the river-side. All this in one year.

AN INDUSTRIAL CENTER IN WESTERN MAINE.

In western Maine the creation of a modern industrial community from the ground up finds a most complete illustration at Rumford Falls,—a new railway, a magnificent water-power, large and diversified industries, a highly organized urban community. In various respects the development is ideal, worthy of the rarely beautiful site at the foot of the White Mountain range. All this is the fruit of the organizing genius of one of the most remarkable of our American captains of industry, Mr. Hugh J. Chisholm, of Portland, the president of the International Paper Company. Mr. Chisholm, born in Canada of Scotch parents, began active life as a newsboy on the Grand Trunk trains. When little more than a boy he had built up a railway newsservice and a printing and publishing business. These things led the way to paper, and eventually to paper manufacturing.

Rumford Falls is a child of the imagination. A near-by resident, the Hon. Waldo Pettengill, long enthusiastic about the enormous water-power wasted in this lonely Androscoggin gorge, called Mr. Chisholm's attention to its possibilities. The latter was quick to appreciate the wonderful opportunity. The neighboring lands were quietly secured. But without railway facilities the power was worthless, and railways were many miles distant. The nearest, the Grand Trunk, was managed from London. The direct-

ors lacked imagination; they could see no good of building a costly branch to a waterfall far off in the wilderness. At length Mr. Chisholm bought up a little railway that ran a few miles from the Grand Trunk, extending it to a junction with the Maine Central, and in the other direction up the Androscoggin Valley to Rumford Falls, and eventually to the Rangeley Lakes. At Rumford Falls the Androscoggin makes a plunge of one hundred and eighty feet. This means 54,000 horse-power, all told. Only about half of this power is yet utilized. A recent State report on Maine's water-power says that there still remains undeveloped 48,000 horse-power in the Androscoggin alone.

Mr. Pettengill's farmer neighbors, unimaginative as the Grand Trunk directors, remained incredulous. The falls had always been there, they said, and always would be just as they had been. Even when the colossal construction-work was well advanced, few in the whole region had any faith that anything would come of it. Failure was generally predicted; it was to be a "folly." Now where twelve years ago there was nothing, something like eight thousand people are clustered,—a little city, picturesque in site and environment, uncommonly attractive in the use made of these possibilities.

A CITY IN MINIATURE.

Mr. Chisholm proposed more than a group of profitable industries; his ambition was to found a genuine city, one of the best of its kind. The

undertaking was thoroughly organized to this end. Independent, though allied, corporations were formed for each particular activity. The railway company looked after transportation; the power company developed the water-power and dealt with the various manufacturing interests; the realty company planned the town lots, built and let dwellings and places of business; the water and light company provided watersupply and electric lighting. These various functions are all discharged in perfect coördination. Practically the same persons are in each company. A national bank and a trust company furnish financial facilities for the place, the trust company having also a savings-bank department. To a considerable extent the same persons are also interested in the several industrial corporations whose activities stand at the base of things.

The carefully studied plan of the town has a marked irregularity. The street lines have been skillfully adapted to the uneven site. The short street from the station crosses the river on a handsome bridge of reënforced concrete. The main fall, a magnificent cataract about a hundred feet high, terminates a striking vista up the river from the business section. Some care has been taken to conserve the natural charm of the river's rushing wildness. At all prominent points not needed for industrial purposes the banks have been preserved for park purposes. There is a consistent intention to make the prominent buildings worthy of a first-class municipal-

ity. Two new blocks for stores and offices owned by the realty company, designed by two of the foremost architectural firms in the country, would be a credit to any great city.

The most striking work of the realty company is Strathglass Park, named in honor of the Scotch village whence came Mr. Chisholm's parents across the Atlantic. It is a residential park, and it looks as if it might belong to the choicest suburb of a metropolitan city, -say Brookline, in Greater Boston. But the residents are employees of the mills! Along a fairly uniform slope of the valley two long parallel streets converge in semicircles at either end. Large detached houses of brick,



ONE OF THE DAMS AT RUMFORD FALLS.

(The wild beauty of the river's banks is preserved for park purposes.)



A STREET IN STRATHGLASS PARK, RUMFORD FALLS.

with slate roofs, harmoniously varied in architecture, stand with ample lawn space about them. The grounds are carefully looked after by the company. Fine cement sidewalks are bordered by turfed margins with shade trees. The houses are divided into convenient apartments. About to be built are a monumental gateway and a handsome casino.

Strathglass Park originated in Mr. Chisholm's idea that successful paper-making depended upon good workmen; that for good workmen good homes were essential. The suites are rented upon a lease. The rent is figured to cover interest and certain other fixed charges. There are also special deposits in advance; one is for anticipated taxes, another for maintenance charges. At the end of the year, according as these costs have been less or more, a deduction is made or an additional payment is required. In this way the lessees, as citizens, are directly interested in keeping the tax-rate low; as tenants, also, in taking the best care of their premises. In a neighboring quarter of the town the realty company has built for operatives comfortable wooden cottages, with all modern conveniences. The rental includes free electric light as well as water.

SUBSIDIARY INDUSTRIES.

Rumford Falls illustrates the economic principle of coördinated industries. The International Paper Company has here a great nine-machine mill. This and its several other Androscoggin

mills above and below turn out a total of five hundred and fifty tons of paper a day. A second great mill at Rumford Falls, that of the Oxford Paper Company, is planned to be the greatest producer of book-paper in the world. Here all the postal cards for the United States Government are made,-three million cards a day, producing a postal revenue of about eight million dollars a year. Subsidiary manufactures allied with these two mills illustrate the two great industrial principles,—economy in labor, economy in material. The largest paper-bag factory in the country stands next door to the former mill, and utilizes the greater portion of its product. The paper-mill employees are nearly all men. But in the paper-bag factory something like half of the seven hundred employees are women and girls. The light and profitable employment for the female part of the population thus assured largely increases the total earnings of the community.

A large envelope factory is subsidiary to the Oxford mill. In a paper-mill the waste,—trimmings, defective paper, etc.,—all goes back into pulp. Hence, nothing is actually wasted. In envelope-making a considerable portion of the paper is represented by trimmings. Here it all returns on the spot to the paper-mill. The economy is therefore enormous. A feature at Rumford Falls is the distribution of electricity through the town for power purposes. This encourages the diversified minor industries that tend to grow up in such a community.



ROUTE-STATISTICIAN SECURING HIS DAILY REPORT OF FARMING OPERATIONS.

FARMING AS A BUSINESS ENTERPRISE.

BY EDWARD C. PARKER.

HE American is an optimist and a braggart concerning the agriculture of his native land. He refers with pride to the great part that the United States plays in feeding and clothing the nations of the earth; to the advanced agricultural methods of to-day and the minimizing of hand labor through the extended use of machinery. The American farmer is held up as a type,—one of the best types, too, of the American citizen. Foreigners are impressed with his independence, his prosperity, and his social condition. The literature and speech of Americans have much to do with agriculture, and the influence of such publicity is being felt, in that farming is coming to be recognized more and more as a business and a profession rather than as a dull, laborious method of obtaining a livelihood. Such optimism concerning agriculture, in our literature and our speech, is good. The American farmer to-day does enjoy more advantages than any other class of toilers in our nation. As a class, the farmers are prosperous, -some are failures financially, and others have become rich from the management of their lands.

SMALL RETURNS FROM FARM INVESTMENTS.

In spite of the apparently prosperous condition of the American farmer, it must be admitted by any one who is a close observer of agriculture that business system and method have not progressed as rapidly in agriculture as in the other great industries of the nation. The financial prosperity of the American farmer to-day is due more to the advantages he has had in unlimited soil fertility and large acreage, in the use of improved machinery and from the appreciation in land values, rather than from successful management or the application of strict business methods. Investments in agriculture from a business standpoint are not highly productive. In many instances, farmers owning land worth from \$75 to \$100 per acre would be better off financially were they to invest their capital in city industries and work for wages at some trade.

High-priced land in the middle West rarely yields an income to exceed 6 or 8 per cent., and if interest on investment (at commercial rates) be considered as an item of expense in the farm business, the net profit will be reduced

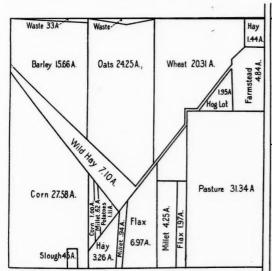
to 2 per cent., or less. Such figures do not apply to the cheap lands of the West that are "skinned" for a few years by speculators and then sold to immigrants, nor to farms that are yielding a high profit through blooded stock,—they are characteristic of the average farm in the middle West. It is common knowledge among American landlords that is difficult to lease farm lands that will yield a return to the owner of more than 3 or 4 per cent. What are the reasons for this condition of affairs? Why is it that investments in agriculture do not yield as high a return as investments in manufactures, transportation, and the distribution of goods?

To a certain extent, the profits in agriculture are kept at a low point by the monopolies among the interests that handle the farmer's products. It is, and always will be, a great problem to organize the agricultural workers so that they may have a guiding hand in the distribution of their products. The farmer, even in these days of the telephone and the free mail delivery, is isolated from other business interests. If he "tends to his knitting" at home, he has little time to give to the distribution of his product. Government regulation of corporations doing an injustice to the farmers' interests would appear to offer a more practical method of combating such injustices than any attempt to set up competitive combinations among the farmers. The way the markets are manipulated by the meat packers and the milk dealers is a crying shame, and demands fearless attack by the federal government. Coöperative creameries, butcher shops, and farmers' elevators all tend to remedy the conditions that force the farmer to sell at some other price than the demand price of the market, but as yet their power is felt only occasionally.

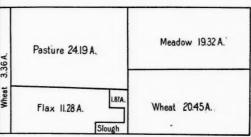
THE DEMAND FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION.

The reason for small returns on agricultural investments lies more with the farmer himself than with the buyer who disposes of his product. Such a statement is frank rather than critical, and a realization of actual conditions must be had as a working basis if conditions are to be remedied. The typical farmer of to-day is not as good a business man and manager as his neighbor who is conducting a shop or a small factory with an equal capital. He has not awakened to the need of special education for his children as fully as has his city neighbor. Realization of these facts during the past decade has brought about a great movement for the uplift of agriculture through consolidated ruralschool education and through research work and experimentation in agricultural practices by the State experiment stations and the United States Department of Agriculture.

However, the research work of the experiment stations and the Department of Agriculture has been concerned mainly with the details of farming. Soils and their properties, the chemistry of foods, plant-breeding, variety testing, and the breeding and feeding of live stock have all offered profitable fields for investigators, and they have been fields that have yielded quick



The actual survey plat of a 240-acre farm in southwestern Minnesota. Grass is grown continuously on



one part of the farm, and grain on the other part. Yields are still fairly good because of the unbounded fertility of the prairie soil; but losses are occurring annually because labor and machinery cannot be used to greatest advantage on poorly arranged fields, and because weeds cannot be kept down to the minimum amount with such a scheme of farming. Land of this character is worth from \$50 to \$60 per acre, and the net profit (interest on investment being considered as an expense) will rarely exceed 2 per cent. Lack of proper crop rotation and general farm management is the main cause of such a condition. (See opposite page.)

and profitable returns. The study of farm management,—i.e., the study of crop rotation and the fitting in of live stock with the field crops, the study of the farm business as a whole, the study of farm statistics and the relation of the farm to the outside world,—has been neglected, mainly because the study of such a problem is so complicated as to offer nothing of value except from long-time experimentation. Surely it is a worthy problem,—that of analyzing agriculture, studying the economics of agriculture, and attempting to put it on a more business-like basis.

UNSYSTEMATIC FARMING, -CONCRETE EXAMPLES.

The layman can hardly realize the lack of system that prevails on the average farm. Drainage is little thought of on the lowlands, crops are rotated only as chance determines, and probably not one farmer in a hundred can tell what enterprise on his farm and under his conditions is the most profitable. In no other business is it likely that men can be found with \$10,000, \$20,-000, or \$50,000 investments who never pretend to keep books of the business. Farmers' books are too often kept in this manner,-gain, money in the bank; loss, money borrowed. The writer once argued this question of keeping books with a well-to-do American farmer, who finally concluded his argument by saying, "Farming ain't all keeping books, by a long shot." Truth lies

Fodder Corn - Seeded to Rye Rye Pasture - Barley Clover Pastures Potatoes Rye Pasture - Barley Corn Clover Pasture Wheat FodderCorn-Seeded to Rye Clover & Timothy armstead Clover Pasture Pasture Potatoes Fodder Corn - Seeded to Rye Oats 8 A Rye Pasture - Bailey P Potatoes Fodder Corn - Seeded to Rye Rye Pasture - Barley 81A Clover Pasture A - 40A Wheat Clover & Timothy Clover & Timothy Pasture Pasture Oats **Oats** Corn Corn Wheat B-40A C-40 A

An ideal plan of the same farm. Adherence to such a scheme of cropping would give each crop the best possible conditions for its growth, and would decrease the labor expense of the farm. Properly arranged fields, fences, and buildings are as essential in utilizing the power and machinery of the farm to the greatest advantage as properly constructed buildings are to the

in the argument, but keeping books is not all there is to manufacturing furniture or transporting freight, and yet it must be a valuable accessory or it would have been discarded years ago.

There are still thousands of farmers in the middle West who do not follow the markets, who rarely, if ever, stop to consider the relation between prices of feeds and prices of beef and pork. Hogs are fed because "there is money in hogs," and many an operation on the farm is done according to some preconceived notion. The writer knows a German farmer in western Minnesota who has a beautiful, clean farm, and is evidently prosperous. While watching him feed his hogs one day, this conversation took place: "How old are those pigs?" "Sixteen months." "Why don't you sell them?" "Well, I don't like to sell a hog until he weighs up good and heavy." Further conversation revealed the facts that corn was worth forty-two cents per bushel and pork four dollars per hundredweight, live weight. When asked if the pigs he was feeding were gaining enough to equal or exceed the value of the corn, and pay him for his labor, he realized that each bushel of corn had got to produce about twelve pounds of pork to yield him any profit. Knowing that his pigs were not gaining the half of that amount, he decided to sell both pigs and corn.

And often the same apparent lack of thought

	Pasture			
	Oats			
	Corn			
	Wheat			
D-40 A	Clover & Timothy			
	Oats			
	Corn			
	Wheat			
	Clover & Timothy			
E-40A	Pasture .			

complete utilization of power and machinery in the factory.

The fertilizer problem of the East and the South will have to be met in the West before many decades unless the soils are put under better rotations. The farm and the farm business cannot be reorganized, however, in the twinkling of an eye with the limited capital that is usually at the farmer's command. Drainage and fencing must usually be considered, and a scheme of cropping such as the one outlined in this plan demands that more live stock be kept on the farm than under the old conditions.

Small grains will always be important crops on the prairie farms, and yet the time is fast approaching, under the present system of continuous grain cropping, when the total yield of grain from large areas will be no greater than the yield that might be secured from a much smaller area of land under systematic rotation.

is seen in the methods, or rather lack of methods, followed in the rotation of crops. A Norwegian farmer in the northern part of Minnesota had on his farm a timothy and brome-grass meadow that had been laid down for many years. The soil had become sod-bound, and the crop of hay looked thin and poor. An attempt was made to induce him to break up the meadow and seed down another piece of land, but he couldn't see the wisdom of such a policy until the argument was made that it was a question whether the crop he would cut off the meadow would equal the value of his labor and the rental value of the land. Statistics kept on this field defeated the farmer and woke him up. He broke up the meadow and had a magnificent crop of flax on it the next year. These cases are not unusual,—they are only typical examples that show the lack of system and business principle in the Western agriculture of to-day. They serve to illustrate the great need for developing systems of farm management suited to the various agricultural regions.

The cost of producing field crops cannot be determined, for practical purposes, on the experiment farms, because labor is too expensive and plot-work is not comparable to field conditions. Realizing this obstacle in the path of completing these rotation studies, the Minnesota Experiment Station, cooperating with the Bureau of Statistics of the United States Department of Agriculture, began in 1902 an exhaustive study into the cost of producing field crops in Minnesota under actual farm conditions. Special agents of the Bureau of Statistics were placed in three of the most representative farming districts in Minnesota. In each district fifteen or sixteen farmers were interested in the work, and agreed to give labor reports and all cash items and miscellaneous data relating to the production of the crops. The "route-statistician," as the special agent came to be called, makes a daily visit to each of these farms and secures a report of all the labor performed the previous day, distributing it to the various crops and enterprises. Each year the farms are sur-

COST OF PRODUCING WHEAT-NORTHWESTERN MINNESOTA.

	Number of acres.	Man-hours.	Horse-hours.	Total cost.	Cost per acre.
Seed value Cleaning seed. Plowing Dragging. Seeding. Weeding. Harvesting. Amount of twine. Shocking Stackthrashing. Machinery cost Land rental.	723.55 495.82 495.82 845.38 857.38 412.00 825.60 749.04 825.60 606.96	165 1,207 516 535 199 604 	3,925 1,687 2,044 2,616 	(1,092.7 bush.) \$748.50 20.625 445.25 191.025 220.175 41.300 271.700 (1,205 lbs.) 138.580 75.000 198.625	\$0.873 .028 .898 .225 .256 .100 .329 .185 .090 .327 1.150 .376
Total	••••				\$6.637

A report on the "cost of producing wheat" as compiled from a number of farms in the great wheat district of Minnesota. Labor is charged at the actual rates of wages for hired farm laborers,—that is, at the cost to the farmer in cash and in cost of keep. Horse-labor is charged on the basis of the "cost of keep" of working farm horses. This cost of keep includes feed, labor, cost of care, depreciation, etc., and in most cases amounts to about \$100 per year per horse.

LEARNING THE COST OF PRODUCING FIELD CROPS.

In 1892 and 1893, Prof. W. M. Hays, now Assistant Secretary of Agriculture, inaugurated a large number of experiments in crop rotation at the North Dakota and Minnesota experiment stations. These experiments are planned to run for twenty years at least, and the value of certain arrangements of crops in the rotation is already apparent. Yields from the different rotations are carefully recorded, and the gross incomes are being determined. The real value of a certain rotation can only be accurately measured by net profit, however, as labor and cash expenditures will vary to an appreciable extent with the arrangement of crops in the rotation.

veyed and a plat made showing the exact acreage of the crops, pasture lands, and waste areas upon which statistics are being recorded. Depreciation of farm machinery and harnesses, the cash rental value of the land, the cost of manlabor and horse-labor on the farm, are all being accurately determined and worked into the general problem of finding out what it costs the farmer to produce an acre of corn, oats, wheat, and hay.

EXPANDING THE STATISTICAL TEST.

For three years the work was carried on in this manner, and the statistics are now being compiled into a report on the "Cost of Producing Field Crops." As the work progressed from year to year, it became apparent to those in charge that this method of gathering statistics might profitably be applied to other lines of production on the farm. Why not investigate the cost of producing beef, pork, and milk under actual farm conditions? Why not attack many of the theories of feeding and breeding live stock in the actual environment of the farm rather than under the more artificial conditions of the experiment farms? Why not collect statistics pertaining to rural sociology and to the general subject of agricultural economics? Statistics of this kind are more accurate when collected systematically and methodically than by arm's-length proceedings. Facts concerning the business of farming can be published in the knowledge that they cannot be attacked on the ground of being impractical or inaccurate. Thus, in 1905 the scope of these investigations was

greatly extended.

The number of farms on which statistics are being kept has been reduced to eight in each district. but statistics of every item in the farm business are being recorded. On a number of these farms the Department of Agriculture has installed steel wagon scales to facilitate the work of weighing fat stock and taking accurate inventories of the yields of field crops. The routestatistician lives for three successive days in every month on each farm. During this period he weighs and tests the milk of each cow in the herd, he weighs the feed consumed by each class of live stock, and he obtains the cash records of sales and expenses during the past month. Each morning he travels over his route and obtains the labor reports of the previous day from all the farmers. All these statistics are posted into a double-entry card ledger, so that the profit and loss of every enterprise on the farm, from wheat to chickens, is being determined. Other statistics concerning farm life are also being gathered that will be of interest to the student of sociology,—such as the cost of table board, and the average household and personal expense.

PRACTICAL RESULTS.

The reader may now well ask, What practical means are available for making use of these statistics? In what manner will they influence the character of our agriculture? It must be admitted that it is an easier matter to collect facts of this kind than it is to disseminate them where they will accomplish the greatest good. More extended and better relations must exist between the farmer and the experiment station before any great change in the present systems of farm management can be looked for. New ideas spread faster in the country by example than by precept, and, realizing this, the Minnesota Experiment Station is earnestly going about the work of influencing a few of the agriculturalcollege graduates to replan and rearrange their farms and become factors in their communities in this new move toward better farm management.

Statistics of this kind add materially to the funds of agricultural literature, and especially to those funds that at present are meager and insufficient to the needs of the agricultural teacher and experimenter. The literature on crop rotation and agricultural economics is conspicuous by its absence. Methods of keeping "farm accounts" in a simple, practical manner are being worked out from the experience gathered in collecting these statistics. The student of agriculture should be taught a system of accounts that is based upon the business of farming,—a system that, while simple, will comprehend all the details. The bookkeeping methods of the city merchant cannot be applied to the business of farming, and farm-boys will not take the interest in studying a system of bookkeeping developed from a city business that they will where the items and details are taken from a business with which they are acquainted. Such a course as this is actually being taught at the Minnesota School of Agriculture,—the simple card-ledger system, and the items used being drawn directly from these statistical investiga-

Many specific problems arise in the discussion of farm management that statistical analysis alone can solve. For instance, in diversified farming, which is the most profitable method of thrashing the grain,—from the shock or stacking and stack-thrashing? Statistics on this problem indicate that stack-thrashing is best under most conditions for the quarter-section farmer carrying on a diversified business. Another mooted question is that of the advisability of shredding corn. Statistical analysis of the cost of producing fodder corn, ear corn husked on the hill, and ear corn cut, shocked, and shredded, and the value of the fodder in the different crops, gives information that will allow the general conclusion to be drawn that shredding is not profitable under diversified farming conditions. Ledgers of the live-stock enterprises are already showing many interesting figures. Here and there a herd of cows is found that is being managed at a loss, and in one district the pigs are far oftener being fed at a loss than at a profit. Ledger accounts of this kind will be examined later by men who are experts in animal husbandry, and mistakes in methods of feeding and care pointed out in such a manner as to be object-lessons to other feeders.

Four years ago, when this work was started, it was almost impossible to secure the hearty cooperation of the farming communities entered. Outspoken antagonism was often met with, and farmers were inclined to jeer at their neighbors who were so foolish as to agree to let Uncle Sam's theorists look into their business. this attitude is changing. In some localities farmers are actually petitioning for a chance to be included in the work, and skepticism of agricultural-college theory is disappearing. Farmers who not long ago believed that they could feed fat into a cow's milk, and got mad at the creamery-man if he gave them a low test, are now selling off the poor cows and breeding those that have performance ability as revealed by the testbottle and the scale. One route-statistician, hav-

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ing an unusual amount of initiative, has organized a lyceum among the farmers in his locality that meets every two weeks. Debates among the members are arranged, and public speakers are brought before the farmers occasionally to discuss current topics of interest to them. He has also organized a magazine club among his farmer coöperators and interested them in the movement for "good roads."

The bringing together of agricultural theory and agricultural practice is a vast undertaking, and he who believes that all practice is underlaid by theory cannot help but be impressed that in the work of extending the theories of agriculture this new method of establishing statistical routes in agricultural communities is a wise and useful move to that end.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN SOUTH AMERICA.

I.—THE NORTHWEST.

WHILE a vast number of journals of all kinds are published throughout the continent of South America, it is only the press of Venezuela, Argentina, and Chile—and possibly Brazil—which can be compared with the press of Europe and the United States. The low state of popular education in most South American states results in a cheap, venal, sycophantic press, for the most part poorly printed and without influence. There are a few journals in the countries mentioned, however, which are of high character and excellently edited.

The language of almost all the South American countries being Spanish, the overwhelming majority of the press of that continent appears The journals of Brazil, in the Spanish language. of course, are written in Portuguese. There are, however, a number of excellently conducted and well-known journals in English, several in German, and some in other European languages. The South American periodicals best known in Europe and in this country are those of Venezuela, Chile, Argentina, and Brazil. Roughly dividing the continent into northwest and southeast, we consider, first, the periodical literature of Venezuela, Colombia, Peru, Ecuador, and Bo-The second installment will treat of the press of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay, and Uruguay.

VENEZUELA.

In spite of the severe governmental restraint in Venezuela, there has been some development of

the press during the past few years. While the independent journals have been almost entirely deprived of their influence, there has been a great growth of sycophantic organs. Under the patronage of President Castro, some very important dailies have been established recently and have exerted an appreciable educational influence. This is particularly true of those published on scientific, literary, and economic lines. Political journalism may be said to have perished. There are about one hundred and seventy-five periodicals of all classes in the republic, which is not a bad showing considering the fact that not more than 10 per cent. of the adult population can read. Monopoly prevents the manufacture of paper and the censorship the expansion of press influence.

As in almost all Latin-American countries, the newspaper press of Venezuela devotes its attention chiefly to subjects of scientific, literary, and economic interest. The Venezuelan newspapers contain, on the whole, most excellent reading, and it may be said with truth that even American daily newspapers do not spread abroad desirable knowledge more cheaply or with better taste than do the dailies of Venezuela. The weeklies and monthlies are, of course, beneath comparison with those of Europe and the United States.

The daily newspapers have valuable articles on science, literature, and economics by men of world-wide faine, these productions not being reserved for Sunday editions, but appearing day by day. Geography, medicine, mechanics, criticism, science,—all these subjects are treated ex-

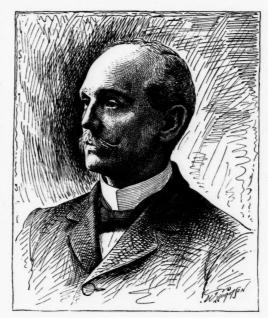


SOME OF THE REPRESENTATIVE JOURNALS OF VENEZUELA, COLOMBIA, PERU, ECUADOR, AND BOLIVIA.

haustively, but in an entertaining and literary style. In the field of politics alone are the dailies and weeklies maudlin. Their national politics are purely fulsome panegyric. Hence, the public reads these journals, but scorns them. Among the dailies, the most important, perhaps, is the Constitucional, of Carácas. It is the organ of President Castro, and is subsidized by the government, which, in addition, gives to its management the lucrative work of public printing. The Constitucional has the most influential and widespread circulation of any newspaper published in South America outside of Rio Janeiro and Buenos Ayres, and its editor, Señor G. Rivas, who is a Porto Rican, is a man of wide culture. The Constitucional, indeed, is better edited than most of the dailies of Mexico and Central America. It has a circulation of about sixteen thousand, and costs two cents (American value) per copy. It consists of four pages of general news and editorial matter, with a good deal of advertising. The Noticiero (News), edited by Señor José Amescua, is an afternoon journal, with an excellent cable service. The best-known of the afternoon dailies is probably, however, the Corresponsal (Correspondent). Other dailies of Carácas are the Diario Nacional (National Daily); the Grito del Pueblo (Cry of the People); the Combate (Struggle), bitterly anti-foreign and subsidized; the Religion, the excellently edited organ of the Catholics; and the Gaceta Oficial (Official Gazette). The lastnamed was established in 1872 by President Blanco. Altogether, there are nine dailies published in Carácas. Letras y Numeros, which is now about four years old, is an enterprising journal modeled largely after the provincial French dailies.

In Valencia, the second city of Venezuela, there are five dailies published, led by the Diario. Then there are the Discipulo (Disciple), the Catholic organ; the Centinela (Sentinel), semi-official; and the Cronista (Recorder), a bulletin of news. The Gaceta de Tribunales (Court Gazette) is published every evening.

Maracaibo has five dailies,—the Fonografo (Phonograph), the oldest daily newspaper in the country; the Ecos de Zulia (Echoes of the State), the Ciudadano (Citizen), the Avisador (Adviser), and the Agencia Maracaibo (Maracaibo Agent). There are four dailies published in Ciudad Bolivar. Merida has more dailies than any other city,—ten in all,—but they are not extensively circulated. In Coro there are three dailies, and there are a number of others throughout the smaller towns, La Guayra having two. Fortytwo dailies are published in the entire country. There are also two official biweeklies issued in



señor J. M. HERRERA IRIGOYEN, (Editor of the Cojo, of Carácas.)

Carácas,—controlled and subsidized by the government.

Venezuela ranks among the leading South American countries for artistically elaborate weeklies. The most important of these are the Semana (Week) and the Lira (Lyre), of Carácas. These contain choice fiction, description, and poetry. Immaculada, the Catholic illustrated weekly, supplies the devout with select reading. The Voz de la Nacion (Voice of the Nation) publishes conservative essays on economics. Italians read the Patria. Other weeklies, chiefly commercial, are the Dominical, the Anuncio, and the Realidad.

There are also several comic journals, the best known of which is Don Timoteo (Sir Timothy), of Valencia. The Cojo Rustrado (Illustrated Cripple) is the most noted of the literary periodicals. It is a fortnightly, and contains only poems, short stories, and criticisms. Its literary tone is high, as is also its price, which is fifty cents in gold (equal to fifty American cents) per copy. Cojo is considered the best of its kind in South America. It is edited by Señor J. M. H. Irigoyen.

Most of the public institutions publish monthly reviews. There are also a number of trade organs. La Industria, devoted to commerce and industry, is the leading monthly of its class, and is really a credit to its country. It is edited by

Vincente Betancourt Aramburo. The University of Carácas publishes a quarterly known as the Anales (Annals). Other bimonthlies are the Gaceta Medica, the Frac-Mason Venezolano (Venezuelan Freemason), and the Droguista Practico (Practical Druggist),—all of Carácas.

COLOMBIA.

The existence of a vigorously edited press in the United States of Colombia was made evident during the agitation over the independence of Panama. A number of the dailies of Bogotá, it was discovered, have a wide circulation and influence, and, moreover, are excellently edited. They are generally poorly printed, however, and many of them have but an ephemeral existence, owing to the severity of the censorship and the instability of political conditions. Every new political situation produces a new journal. Sometimes the Church takes a hand and excommunicates the publication for some utterance. This generally has the effect of killing the newspaper. Within the last few months a sentence of excommunication was passed on a comic weekly, Mefistófeles, which soon ceased to exist. While frequently strong in editorial writing, the news service of the Colombian journals is very poor, -a fact no doubt due to the difficulty of communication with the rest of the world. The principal dailies of the capital are the Nuevo Tiempo, the Correo Nacional, the Colombiano, and the Blanco y Azul (White and Blue). The Nuevo Tiempo and the Correo Nacional are the most important publications of the republic. The first-named issues a literary edition weekly, which has recently begun to appear in illustrated form. Both these dailies are quite old, and have considerable influence. The editor of the Nuevo Tiempo is Señor Carlos Artur Lorreo, finance minister under President Marroquin. The editor of the Correo Nacional is Señor Eduardo Guzman, formerly Colombian consul-general at New York, and now a prominent citizén.

PERU.

The center of journalistic as well as general literary enterprise in Peru is Lima, which is also the center of politics and commerce. There are a number of illustrated journals with good circulations published in the capital. Among the weeklies are the Actualidades, Novedades, Lucero, and Lima Ilustrado. Lima has also a dignified illustrated monthly, the Revista Pan Americana, which is devoted to politics and diplomatic mat-

ters. It also publishes the Ateneo, an exclusively literary quarterly. In Cuzco there is an influential fortnightly, the Agricultor; and in Piura three weeklies,—the Amigo del Pueblo, the Noticiero, and the Revista del Norte.

The best-known Peruvian dailies are the Comercio, organ of the party in power, which is the oldest and the best established, and the Prensa, organ of the opposition. The Heraldo, also governmental, was founded by the national Peruvian poet, Chocano. The Opinion Nacional is the independent organ. It is particularly strong in editorials. The Peruvian dailies usually sell for two cents in silver, equivalent to one cent in American currency. Outside of Lima, the noteworthy dailies and semiweeklies are,-in Callao, the suburb and shipping port of Lima, the Reaccion and the Callao, both dailies; in Arequipa, the Bolsa and the Deber, dailies; in Trujillo, the Razon and the Industria, dailies, and the Voz de Trujillo, every other day. In Mollendo there is an influential semiweekly, the Puerto.

ECUADOR.

The chief publication center of Ecuador is the metropolis, Guayaquil. The principal dailies of this city, which are well patronized, are the Nacion, the Telegrafo, the Tiempo, and the Grito del Pueblo. The Nacion is about twenty-five years old, and is the best-known journal of the country. The Grito del Pueblo is not so old, but has a well-established circulation and influence. Outside the capital, the most important daily is the Patria, of Quito, a comparatively new journal, which, however, is enterprising and successful. The only noteworthy monthly published in the country is the Ilustracion Ecuatoriana, of Guayaquil.

BOLIVIA.

Bolivia has a number of daily newspapers, most of the principal ones being published in La Paz. The principal ones of the capital are the Comercio de Bolivia, the Diario, the Estado, the Comercio, and the Nacional. In the provinces, the following are worthy of mention: Potosi, the Tiempo; Cochabamba, the Heraldo and the Comercio; Santa Cruz, Estrella del Oriente; Tarija, the Estrella de Tarija and the Pensamiento; Oruro, the Vapor.

All these are general newspapers, covering, in a more or less thorough way, the general news of the day, and also having literary and scientific features.

SHALL FOOTBALL BE ENDED OR MENDED?*

I.-WHY COLUMBIA HAS ABOLISHED THE GAME.

BY PRESIDENT NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.

[President Butler, on the 1st of December, issued a statement to the alumni and student members of Columbia University which he authorizes us to publish as the fullest expression of his views on the game of football and the reasons which have led Columbia to prohibit that game henceforth.—The Editor.]

To the alumni and student members of Columbia University:

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The action of the Committee on Student Organizations, taken by unanimous vote, in putting an end to the present game of football at Columbia University has my cordial approval, and I wish to state briefly why that action is in the best interest of the whole university.

Columbia University has no control, direct or indirect, over the present game of football. If played by our representatives, it must be played in the form and manner prescribed by a committee which the chairman of our University Committee on Athletics has appropriately described as "self-perpetuating, irresponsible, impervious to public opinion, and culpable in refusing to heed the increasingly dangerous character of the game." The game which this committee has devised and developed is not a sport, but a profession. It demands prolonged training, complete absorption of time and thought, and is inconsistent-in practice, at least-with the devotion to work which is the first duty of the college or university student. It can be participated in by only the merest fraction of the student body. Throughout the country it has come to be an academic nuisance because of its interference with academic work, and an academic danger because of the moral and physical ills that follow in its train. large sums received in gate money are a temptation to extravagant management, and the desire for them marks the game as in no small degree a commercial enterprise. The great public favor with which even the fiercest contests are received is not a cause for exultation, but rather for profound regret.

We ourselves cannot reform this game, and the experience of years has shown that the Rules Committee do not desire to reform it. Moreover, only a few of the evils of the game are seen on the playing-field. Those evils are many, subtle, and controlling; they affect every phase of college and university life, and for some years past have reached down even into the secondary schools. They are moral and educational evils of the first magnitude.

Columbia University owes it to its traditions, its ideals, and its standards, as well as to the responsibility which it bears to its students, to put an end, so far as action by it can, to this state of affairs. It has done so. The act itself may seem sudden to some, but the convictions that led to the act have been years in forming.

It is urged that football is a great aid to the development of college spirit. Every member of the faculty is interested in the development of true college spirit and would do all in his power to promote it. But the contention that the present game of football is necessary to that end is wholly illusory. Even if it were not so, college spirit is too dearly bought if college intelligence and college morals are sacrificed for College spirit existed long before football was heard of, and will exist long after football is forgotten. We must get the qualities of manliness, loyalty, and courage built up on a moral foundation, and not allow them to rest upon a purely physical one-for in the last analysis a purely physical basis is a purely animal basis. There must be something to rest upon when "the tumult and the shouting dies."

Our own athletic committees have for some years past rigidly enforced the strictest rules as to professionalism and academic eligibility. They point out that Columbia teams have at times been obliged to suffer defeat because of their firm adherence to those rules. These facts are known to the members of the Committee on Student Organizations, and therefore their action is in no sense to be interpreted as a censure of the football management at Columbia, but as a condemnation of the present game of football itself.

Since the action of our committee was made

^{*} The discussion of college football during the past season extended into the winter and culminated in the actual prohibition of the game at Columbia University. The series of brief statements from eminent educators published herewith fairly represents public opinion both within and without university and college circles.

known, we have been overwhelmed with messages of congratulation and praise for our university from leaders of public opinion everywhere. The best judgment of those best qualified to judge is that we have done a distinct public service in shutting the present game of football and its Committee on Rules out of Columbia University.

What next? I do not know and cannot predict. But I think that this much is certain,—
if any game called football takes the place of
the one we have put behind us, it will be a game
free from the evils that I have pointed out, one
wholly acceptable to our authorized committee
and to our alumni advisers, and one which representatives of Columbia will have some share in
controlling if abuses develop in connection with it.

It is not agreeable for men to feel obliged to take action, in obedience to the dictates of their judgment and their conscience, that brings disappointment to others, particularly when those disappointed are to be found among their own students and daily associates. Yet in the present instance our duty was plain, and I commend the action of the constituted university authority to the approval of every true Columbia man and to that of every lover of manly, decent, amateur sport. Sober reflection will, I am confident, bring even the most enthusiastic follower of football among us to see that the action taken is the only course worthy of a university with our reputation and authority, and the only really effective way to open the door to a truly reformed, instead of a tinkered, football.

II.—A WESTERN VIEW OF THE SITUATION.

BY BENJAMIN IDE WHEELER.

(President of the University of California.)

HERE are various ways of playing football, most of them good. It is the present American intercollegiate game that is not good. This game has been fashioned out of the old Rugby scrimmage by a process of militarizing. Two rigid, rampart-like lines of human flesh have been created, one of defense, the other of offense, and behind the latter is established a catapult to fire through a porthole opened in the offensive rampart a missile composed of four or five human bodies globulated about a carried football with a maximum of initial velocity against the presumably weakest point in the opposing rampart. The "point" is a single human being. If it prove not to have been the weakest to start with, it can be made such, if the missile be fired times enough. Therein lies the distinctive American contribution to the Rugby game. By allowing players to advance ahead of the ball, the American feature of "interference" has been created, and therewith the "mass play." The process of militarization has been aided by making the ball always, at any given time, the possession of one of the two sides. There is nothing final or ideal about the present form of the game, nor does it exist by an authority descending out of Sinai. It happens to be what it just now is by virtue of tinkering legislation of the sort that gave us last the profitless quarterback run and changed the field from a gridiron to a multiplication table.

The participants in the game are not players,

but cogs in a machine. Each man does one thing over and over. One man does practically all the kicking, two do all the carrying, and the rest keep each to their own specialized pushing. A man may play the season through without having finger or toe against the ball. Weeks of special physical training are necessary before venturing into the game, and once the "season" is over no one thinks of going out to play it for fun, not even the men who have "made the team." In fact, there is no game for the individual to play; it is a body of evolutions into which every man of the squad must have been drilled by patient repetitions of the same maneuver in precisely the same relative position to the other members of the squad,-after the manner of chorus girls in the grand ballet. To put it briefly, American intercollegiate football is a spectacle, and not a sport. If the element of "gate money" were removed, the whole thing would vanish away-in season as well as out of season.

The game is to be judged, therefore, in the present situation, not from the point of view of college sport and physical culture, but from that of the query, Is it desirable, in the interest of institutional solidarity or "college spirit," to maintain such a spectacle? It has been unmistakably determined that the public is glad to lend financial support in the form of admission fees to the maintenance of the spectacle; shall a few stout young men in each of our universities

lend themselves to the gratification of this public taste?

Only a few are needed. In the ten years from 1892 to 1902, at the University of California, only seventy-five different men made the team as players or substitutes out of four thousand or more different male students during that time in attendance. As a player generally holds on for three or four years, seventy-five men, with a certain number of hopeless candidates as background, will suffice for the proposed task in any decade.

A better solution, in my opinion, is to return from the spectacle to the sport; take off the headgear and the nose-guards, and the thigh-padding and the knee-padding, and introduce the Association game for light men and runners,—indeed, for the average man,—and the restored Rugby, perhaps with its Australian modifications, for the heavier and more vigorous men. Then let the student mass descend from its enthronement in sedentary athletics on the bleachers and get health and fun and virility out of the heartiest and manliest of our sports.

III.—SUCCESSIVE STAGES OF THE AMERICAN GAME.

BY JOHN H. FINLEY.

(President of the College of the City of New York.)

N my college days I played what was known as "Association football;" in the university I was introduced to the American Rugby game, and was a member of the "'varsity team' for two seasons (or so much of them as was not spent in having my bones mended); later as a college president I saw the game now generally played develop in a typical Western college; then as a professor I had somewhat to do with students of one of the great Eastern universities in which the game was played in its evolved and highly specialized form; and now I am associated with a college in which football has not for some time been played. I have thus, in my experience of the game, passed through all its stages. I speak of this cycle of my personal experience, from no football to no football, because its chapters mark the course of the game in America, though the last stage has been reached by only a few institutions.

1. The game of my first experience was not without its dangers to limb, but they were not so great to life. By comparison with it, the Rugby game seemed to me, when I first witnessed and played it, unintelligible, uninteresting, and unprofitable. I do not know how this earlier form of contest, more properly called football, now being revived, would impress me, as I have not seen it played in many years. If it is all that my memory recalls, it should be restored in our schools, at any rate. There would be this decided advantage, if the schools adopted the "Association game" while the colleges kept the Rugby, that the specialization in the latter would begin much later, and that the evils growing out of the canvass of schools for promising trained material would be greatly reduced. Such

a change might help, also, to diminish the hurtful aping by schoolboys of what may safely be done by young men of college or university age. The inter-school games played before great crowds should be stopped. The good cannot be as great as the harm.

2. My experience as a member of a university team was altogether beneficial to me, despite the injuries I received. Although they were serious enough, they were insignificant, after all, by the side of the discipline and the bodily advantage. But the game was then rather primitive; there were few practice hours, few out-of-town games; there was no training-table, no coach, no armor; the players had no excuse from regular university work; they led a normal student life. The game was incidental. Under such conditions and natural restrictions (there were no artificial ones), the game was entirely wholesome.

3. As president I saw the Rugby game rise from its beginnings in the West. It had not yet been mimicked by the schools, and so its present scientific refinement was happily not possible. The danger of professionalism was not as great as in baseball. Although the advantages of mere weight were even then menacing the attractiveness of the game, alertness of body and brain still had a good chance. The best scholar, in my memory of that period, was also one of the best players. The benefit of the game, as then played, to the college as a whole and to the player was unquestioned. No apology for football was needed in that time.

4. Most of its evils have come, it is not necessary to say, with its intensification, with the glorification of the player, with the profes-

sionalizing of what was once but a means of recreation. We cannot go back, of course, to the more primitive form, but can it not be evolved into a genuine college sport again that can be played without professional skill, tuition, or paraphernalia?

5. But the last state of my experience is worse than the first,—or second, or third. The fourth should have issue not in the abolition but in the redemption of the game, for it has in it a spirit worth saving to our American student life. Perhaps those who know more about football than some of the rest of us do can, by processes of elimination, find and correct what has distorted or debased the game in recent years; and we of the teaching body can at least see that it does not have too much sympathy from our curricula,—and inherited savagery.

IV.—A PHYSICAL INSTRUCTOR'S SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT.

BY DUDLEY A. SARGENT, M.D.

(Director of the Hemenway Gymnasium, Harvard University.)

OLLEGE athletics form a very essential part of a scheme of physical education because they develop certain desirable mental and physical qualities that cannot be as well developed in any other way. Some forms of athletics, such as boxing and wrestling, bring men into more or less violent personal contact with one another, and for this reason these sports would not be tolerated in intercollegiate contests. Nevertheless, there is a deep love for antagonistic sports in human nature of both sexes, and even such athletic contests as running, rowing, swimming, baseball, hockey, and lacrosse have to be carefully safeguarded to prevent personal encounters.

The game of football as played and developed in the American colleges has afforded the best opportunities for personal encounters, because they form an essential part of it and are disguised in what is termed a "scrimmage." In the dictionary sense, a "scrimmage" means "a rough-and-tumble contest." The convention of football representatives from Columbia, Princeton, Rutgers, and Yale held in New York in 1873 evidently had some conception of this feature of the game, for we read among the rules adopted for the guidance of the Intercollegiate Football Association of America the following: Rule 28 .- "No hacking, throttling, butting, tripping up, tackling below the hips, or striking with closed fist shall be allowed." This rule, still accepted by the American Intercollegiate Football Association as late as 1882, was at least nominally intended to prevent these specified kinds of offensive personal contact that experience had shown likely to occur during the progress of a game. But what shall we say of the following rule, printed in the same book of directions, defining the duties of the referee? Rule 19 .- "The referee . . . shall decide disputed points, and shall disqualify any player whom he has warned twice for intentional off side play, intentional tackling in touch, or intentional violation of Rule 28."

By this rule it will be readily seen that the referee is not only deprived of all power of immediate action in punishing foul play, but the player is actually allowed to hack, throttle, butt, or strike his opponent twice before he can be disqualified. In point of practice, the players of football in the early eighties were encouraged. and even commanded, by the captain on the field to take their "warning" during the progress of the game. It was the brutality and viciousness resulting from this kind of football that led the faculty of Harvard University to prohibit the game at that institution in 1885. Although the rules governing the game have since been amended so as to punish "unnecessary roughness, throttling, hacking, or striking with the closed fist" by immediate disqualification, many other methods of doing an opponent personal injury are still made possible by the present style of play.

It is hard to eradicate from the student mind the old traditions of the game that have come down from a previous generation. It is even difficult for the umpire to realize that he is not expected to be blind to a certain amount of "slugging," kneeing, elbowing, etc., and it is equally difficult for the player to understand that he is not expected to butt, hack, strike, etc., at least once during the game, if by so doing he can increase the chances of victory for his team. The much talked of team play covers a multitude of sins, and men do a lot of dirty work, under the mistaken plea of loyalty to their college, that they would shrink from doing on their own responsibility. The game has improved in

this respect of late years. It is now considered better football to follow the man with the ball than to attempt to "do up" or "knock out" an opponent. The injuries from football, which unfortunately are now more numerous than ever, do not result so much from personal assaults as from the vicious method of tackling a runner below the hips (formerly prohibited), various kinds of momentum or mass plays, and the practice of piling on to the man who is downed with the ball. So long as this method of playing is practised, it will be necessary to meet force with force, and injuries will continue to be numerous, for reasons that are so obvious that they need not be mentioned. No sport has long thrived among gentlemen that admits of violent personal contact. This is the factor in sport that has killed boxing and wrestling as athletic contests in the colleges, and it is the fundamental objection to football as at present played. The only way to prevent injuries from objectionable personal contact and violent collisions in football is to stop trying to advance the ball toward the opponent's goal by running with it. This will at once do away with all forms of tackling, with the inevitable downs, rush-line scrimmages, and mass plays. Permit the ball to be passed, batted, kicked, or rolled in any direction, and allow, if necessary, blocking or interference with the flight of the ball from player to player or toward the goal, but do not allow, under any circumstances, a player to lay hands upon or interfere with an opponent when he has the ball.

This requirement, which protects the man with the ball, should be followed by another making it obligatory upon him not to hold the ball, but to pass it quickly to some other player on his own side who may have run to some more advantageous position to receive it. In order to make the attainment of a goal more difficult, the goals should be kicked, and not thrown, and the form of the goals through which the ball is kicked should be a vertical square or circle, made small enough and placed low enough to give a better opportunity for defense than is afforded by the present game. Other specific directions should follow as a matter of course.

It will be observed that the game that I would substitute for modern football is a combination of the good points of football and basketball. The rules of such a game could be made very simple, and twenty or thirty men on a side could play it at the same time. The crying need of our colleges to-day is not for the highly specialized and over-strenuous games that only few men can play, but for more simple games in which a greater number may take part. If athletics have any place in our institutions of learning, they should be so conducted that all the students attending may get some good from With this end in view, our schools and colleges should open up the best possible facilities for the practice of all the approved forms of sports, games, and physical exercises. Unless the present interest in athletics take some such practical turn as this, it will soon be a disgrace for an institution of learning to turn out a victorious athletic team, and the attendance of forty thousand persons at a football game, the spirit and practice of which they condemn, may be considered evidence of our moral decadence.

V.—CAN THE GAME BE CONTROLLED AND REMODELED?

BY LUTHER H. GULICK, M.D.

(Director of physical training in the public, elementary, and high schools of New York City; secretary of the Public Schools Athletic League.)

WHEN five hundred children are turned loose on a space of ground which in the old school days would have served fifty children for recess it is not possible for them to play freely; they interfere with one another. The children being placed so much more closely together has greatly increased all those difficulties which are involved in social relations. The complexity of the situation has been greatly increased. In order that the five hundred children may play as freely as possible, it is necessary that there be some older person who shall main-

tain order; who shall see that the available space is not monopolized by the few big and strong ones. He shall, when necessary, suggest plays and games adapted to the difficult and new conditions under which the children find themselves. In order that the play may be most free, it must be somewhat controlled. This control does not extend to the play itself, but is directed at the government of those conditions which are new,—namely, the social intensity and complexity due to the large number of children in the limited space, and the furnishing the information

with reference to specific plays which have not yet had time enough to be evolved by the children themselves. The object of the control is to let the children play freely. The method is the control of those elements in the environment which are new and too complex and difficult to be handled by the children themselves.

The principle obtains wherever the conditions under which people play become rapidly changed. For example, the present situation with reference to college athletics in general and college football in particular shows the inadequacy of the uncontrolled free-play idea as applied to college students under the present conditions of intercollegiate athletics. There is a general and very old feeling among educational authorities that the recreation of all college students is much better when directed by the students themselves, that this direction is in itself a part of the play, that it affords useful training in various directions, to all of which I most willingly assent, but during the past few years new elements have been introduced into the college athletic situation which make the college student almost as unable to have general free play in his athletics as the city pupil is to have free play on his uncontrolled and limited city playground. The amounts of money involved are very great. The games have acquired a commercial significance which is altogether new in college sport. There are funds available which were never dreamed of in the earlier and more simple days of college sport. The intense rivalry between institutions is only one of a number of factors which has tended to change the notion of sport for the fun of it to sport for the sake of victory, -victory being thus augmented from a very desirable incident to an end in itself. This case, then, like that of the city school child, demands trained technical control. The problems are too difficult of solution by the men themselves; their life in college is too brief to permit of these large questions being worked out satisfactorily during the experience of any student.

If we grant the principle, the application will be that this control must be of such a nature, and to such an extent, as will most truly give that freedom in athletics that will most truly restore sport as a means of recreation and health to its natural place. This control must be, as in the case of the city pupil, to restore freedom in play rather than to take it away. The elements which are to be controlled and managed are the new ones rather than the old ones.

We are at present undergoing a storm of discussion as to the changes in the rules that will cure the present football disease. We are not in a position to pass upon cures at the present time. What we need is to establish the principle and the nature of control. The changing of rules will not alter ethical relations. The chief needs at present, with reference to athletics, are

ethical rather than physiological.

To reduce this discussion to a definite proposition, let me say that I believe the athletics of educational institutions should be under the absolute control of a man whose relation to the faculty is the same as that of any other head of a department whose training for his work, both in practical knowledge and scholastic attainment, is as extended and technical as is demanded of a professor in any other branch, and whose tenure of office is as certain as that of other college professorships. The primary qualifications of this man, so far as practical work is concerned, must be the ability to get a very large number of the students actually engaged, voluntarily, in wholesome out-of-door athletics rather than to defeat other collegiate teams upon the gridiron or the cinder path.

College football needs to be controlled and remodeled, but this can only be wisely done by men who continuously administer the college sports; who administer the games as a means to exercise rather than as an intercollegiate means of contest. We need continuous trained control of the situation by high-grade men whose positions are not dependent upon victory.



TURKEY VERSUS EUROPE IN THE BALKANS.

BY DR. MAURICE BAUMFELD.

(American correspondent of the Vienna Neue Freie Presse.)

N the realm of international politics the conflict which the Sultan has been waging against the six European powers for the past weeks has been second in importance only to the historical events now occurring in the Russian Empire, a conflict not without its serious dangers. It may seem paradoxical that with Turkey on the one side, England, France, Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy on the other, even a merely formal resort to arms could not be prevented. This is subject to but one interpretation,—that the Sultan did not believe in the unity of these powers until the very last moment; that he left nothing untried to draw them into conflicting interests, hoping that his old Oriental political method of postponement, of half-hearted concessions, of shamefaced and shameful threats, would again prove successful.

During the conferences held several years ago in Vienna and at Muerzsteg between the Austrian Emperor, Francis Joseph, and the Russian Emperor, Nicholas, to which the two ministers for foreign affairs, Count Goluchowski and Count Lamsdorff, were summoned, a mutually agreeable regulation of affairs in the Balkans was arrived at, and many important resolutions were adopted, referring particularly to the bettering of conditions in Macedonia. Macedonia, with its predominantly Christian population, has for many years been the center of serious revolutions and revolts, each one threatening the infinitely greater danger of a general rebellion on the part of all the European possessions of the Sultan. This would mean the downfall of Turkey, an event which all the powers are at present anxious to prevent. In order to fully comprehend the true state of affairs, we must, first of all, remember that in the past few years all the joint actions of the powers have been devoted to a common purpose,—namely, the preservation of Turkish territory and the pacification, by the introduction of expedient reforms, of the suppressed and constantly revolting elements.

The Muerzsteg programme was devoted to the same cause. It demanded the nomination of a special governor-general to be appointed by Turkey. In addition to this, Austria-Hungary and Russia were each entitled to a civil commissioner delegated to exercise a certain control over the government of the country. Further-

more, it demanded a reorganization of the military forces throughout the entire country, to be placed under the supervision of an Italian officer as commander-in-chief and sixty officers chosen from the armies of the great powers. The main purposes of this reorganization were, primarily, to be able in due time to suppress the many smaller revolts which arise in Macedonia almost throughout the entire year, and, furthermore, to insure the Christian population against Mohammedan despotism. After the usual delay, Turkey consented that these measures be carried out. This was done for two years, for a period expiring March, 1906. The. agreement had already been made in the Muerzsteg programme that the contracting powers have the right to decide upon the prolongation of this term and then merely to inform Turkey of this fact. Therefore, when, in the course of the transactions of the past weeks, the Sultan offered such a prolongation beyond March, 1906, as a concession on his part, it was merely one of the many maneuvers by which he believed he could preserve his authority. In the course of these two years it had be-

come evident that the attempts to maintain peace in Macedonia were unsuccessful and would remain so unless a regulation of financial matters could be accomplished. Every tax and duty in the land had thus far been collected by the Turkish pashas, and had been utilized in the well-known Turkish way, the greater portion being added to the private property of these dignitaries, the smaller portion reaching the Padishah, whereas the taxpayers derived no appreciable benefits whatsoever from these burdens. Not only the Christian, but also the Mohammedan, population of Macedonia became thoroughly tired of this robbery. The latter, therefore, sanctions and supports the demand of the powers that these duties and taxes be controlled

six members. The members of this commission,—one for each of the six powers,—received their appointments many weeks ago, and have already arrived at their posts. However, following the injunction of the Sultan, the governorgeneral has refused his sanction to their official activity. The opposition against their activity

and used for the general good of Macedonia by

a European finance commission consisting of

was considerably stronger on the part of the dignitaries in Macedonia than of those in Constantinople, the former fully realizing that their acknowledgment of the commission meant an end to their robbery for all time. They wisely and very cleverly appealed to the Sultan's pride and honor, and convinced him that the loss of the financial control of Macedonia meant the first step to the loss of the entire province, as had been proven in the case of eastern Roumelia. They stated that Macedonia constituted the pearl of his empire, and that its loss was equivalent to the end of Turkish rule in Europe.

In order to prove their absolute unity on this question, the six powers decided to take an unusual step. The six ambassadors in Constantinople had requested a joint audience, in the course of which they desired clearly to state the ideas of their sovereigns, and particularly to prove the entirely friendly purposes toward Turkey on which their propositions were based. The Sultan replied to this unusual step by taking one even more exceptional. He simply refused to receive the ambassadors. In this manner a situation had suddenly been created which made a purely diplomatic settlement quite impossible. The necessity for immediate action brought about the decision to enter upon a joint naval demonstration of all the powers concerned, which should primarily result in the seizure of certain custom-houses, and in its eventual course in a blockade of the Turkish coast. Merely the passing of this resolution, one had every reason to suppose, would prove to the Sultan the uselessness of further resistance.

The Padishah, however, remained immovably obstinate. The motives prompting his resistance are not difficult to surmise. The events in Russia could naturally not remain unnoticed in Constantinople. The military humiliation of that empire on land and on water perchance betokened to the Sublime Porte that Russia was no longer a dangerous opponent even for Turkey. That Austria-Hungary was loath to enter upon any military action at that time was also well known. Moreover, the Sultan felt perfectly secure in the possession of the frequently emphasized friendship of Germany,-in fact, felt encouraged thereby to continue his resist-When it finally became known that Germany did not intend to participate in the joint naval demonstration, this was interpreted as a direct summons to stand firm and unvielding. This, however, was a fatal error. I believe that my information regarding Germany's attitude in this matter is as reliable as it is authentic. That the entire incident was unwelcome to Germany is certain. The personal sympathy of William II. for the Sultan, as well as the special commercial position which Germany secured for herself during the past ten years in European and Asiatic Turkey, would naturally influence his course of action. In the question of Macedonian finance reform, however, he is in complete accord with the other great powers. This is proved by the fact that his commissioner is jointly at work with the others. Moreover, the German Government has defined its point of view in an official notice in the Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung, as follows:

The attitude of the Turkish Government in the question of the Macedonian financial control will call forth the sincerest regret. The refusal to grant the desired joint audience sought by the ambassadors of the nations concerned, purposing a last appeal to the wisdom of the Sultan, has unfortunately proved that influences have gained prevalence at the Golden Horn which have turned a deaf ear to sane and pertinent judgment of the situation. The course of events up to the present time should have aroused the conviction that there can remain no doubt as to the unity in the purpose of the powers to carry out this feature of the Muerzsteg programme.

Moreover, the German ambassador in Constantinople, Freiherr von Marschall, again emphasized in a special audience accorded to him by the Sultan, whose particular favor he enjoys, the advisability of granting the desired concessions, stating that Germany shared, without reserve, the opinion of the other powers as to the necessity of the reforms in question. The failure to participate in the naval demonstration is attributable solely to practical considerations, inasmuch as there was no German man-of-war in the Mediterranean at the time, and, in the limited time for action, its dispatch would not have proved feasible.

Be this as it may, the Porte remained unrelenting even when the sailing orders had been issued to the united fleet, the chief command of which had been unanimously intrusted to the Austrian admiral, Ripper. The purpose of this action was to acknowledge the particular interests of Austria-Hungary in the Balkan peninsula, as well as to emphasize the more important fact that the monarchy demanded the execution of the Muerzsteg programme irrespective of any selfish interests whatsoever, merely purposing the preservation of the Sultan's sovereign rights.

The international fleet had already assembled in the Piræus when the Sublime Porte finally deigned to send a reply to the powers, and again a purely negative one. The attitude taken by the Turkish authorities was substantially this:

They held the commission of finance to be in direct opposition to the sovereign rights of the Sultan, and claimed that it would result in a loss of his prestige and would debase him in the eyes of his subjects. Refer-

ence is also made to the Muerzsteg programme, which insured complete independence and integrity to Turkey. The appointment of the delegation of finance, however, was in complete contravention of this agreement. Finally, should the ambassadors persist in carrying out their purpose of bringing greater pressure to bear, the Porte declined to assume any responsibility for all events which might result, as well as for the consequences of the discontent in Ottoman public opinion following upon the infringement on the rights of the empire.

This unveiled threat of revolt and massacre of Christians was about the most unwise decision at which the council in Constantinople could have arrived. It is a matter of common knowledge that not only is the expression of popular opinion in Turkey not tolerated, but it is cruelly suppressed. The breaking out of hostilities, which, of course, did not occur, could therefore have resulted only at the direct instigation of the Turkish Government.

The most important feature of this message was an appeal to the signatories of the treaty of Berlin with particular reference to the fact that Turkey had conscientiously performed all the obligations which it imposed, whereas as much could not be said of the other high contracting parties. As it may be of importance, in considering the future development of events in Turkey and in the Balkans, to test the justification of this accusation, a short summary of the articles in question in the treaty of Berlin may not be out of place. Beyond a doubt it must be acknowledged that partially, at least, the reproaches of Turkey are based upon fact. Articles XIII. to XXII. of the treaty of Berlin contain a guarantee for the establishment of the sovereign province of East Roumelia, subject to the military authority of the Sultan and independent of Bulgaria. This guarantee was annulled by the revolt of Philippopolis in 1885 and the ensuing union of East Roumelia and Bulgaria. Similarly all the guarantees failed of performance by. which Bulgaria was obligated to pay tribute to Turkey, Servia, Montenegro, and, furthermore, to assume a portion of the Turkish national debt,-all of which resulted in the loss of great financial advantages to Turkey.

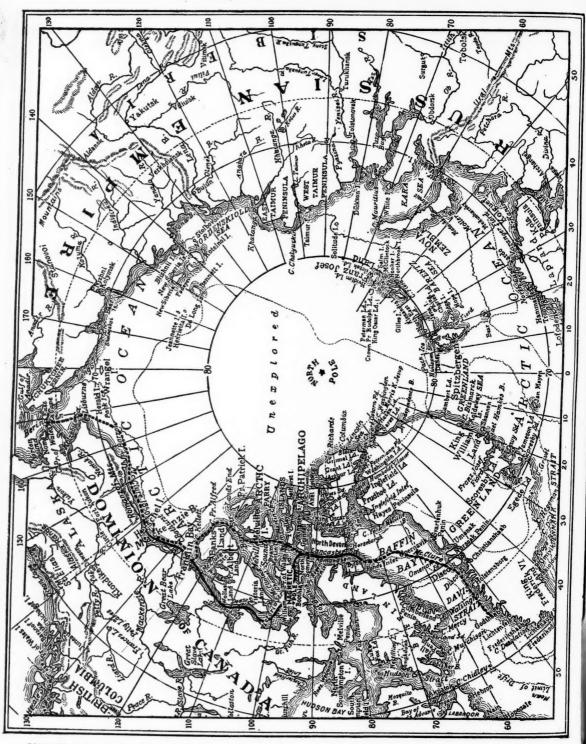
On the other hand, it cannot be said that Turkey more conscientiously performed the obligations resting upon her. The duties with regard to Crete which she assumed in Article XXIII. remained unperformed until enforced by the powers after the war with Greece. Furthermore, by reason of the same paragraph, special provision was to have been made for all European possessions, and this by means of special commissions, with the assistance of the native element. Had this actually been carried out,

the "Macedonian question" would no longer exist, and Turkey would have been spared this last humiliation. Finally, bearing in mind the contents of Article LXI., which minutely specifies the reforms for the Armenian provinces, and on the other hand remembering the outrages which the Porte visited upon these same Armenians, thereby losing the sympathies of all civilized nations, her present reference to her conscientious performance of treaties must be stigmatized as quite as unfortunate as her threats of new massacres. The international fleet went to sea and occupied the customhouses of Mytilene and Tenedos. In the interim, to be sure, there were days of inaction, by reason of the fact that the powers had agreed to continue to treat the Sultan with the utmost consideration. To be perfectly frank, it must be admitted that the powers were in dread of the moment which would necessitate the decision for a determined step, a step which necessarily exceeded the conception of a peaceable blockade. The opposition of Turkey had developed to such an extent that the military honor of six powers appeared to be involved.

Once more the Padishah resorted to the well-known artifices. He declared his approval of the "finance control," provided it was exercised only by Austria Hungary and Russia, a proposition promptly declined by the latter powers.

Eventually an agreement was reached,—obstreperous Turkey had to bow entirely. To pass judgment on the real importance of these concessions would be useless. A common-sense view can but approve of them. The Macedonians will now attain their rights. Had any one of the powers actually intended to carry out the destruction of the Ottoman Empire at the present time, more energetic measures would have been adopted.

As it is, the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire is taking a most unusual course. Paradoxical as it may sound, Turkey will be ruined by reforms which are being forced upon her by de-These reforms cannot be obstructed, as they will progress automatically, one from the other. The incidents of the last few weeks are surely not the last of their kind. The Armenians will follow the Macedonians. On the present occasion the various small powers of the Balkans were given to understand in a trite.communication that the antagonistic attitude toward Turkey was not to be deemed an encouragement to them. It may be stated, however, that the future of Turkey will not be decided in Constantinople, but will be dependent upon the outcome of the present chaotic conditions in Russia.



MAP OF THE ARCTIC REGIONS, SHOWING ROUTES TRAVERSED IN SEEKING THE NORTHWEST PASSAGE.

MAKING THE NORTHWEST PASSAGE.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

APTAIN ROALD AMUNDSEN and his seven comrades have made the Northwest Passage in one of the smallest vessels that ever undertook exploration in the archipelago north of us. The sloop Gjöa, of forty-seven tons, with little spread of sail and weak motive power, for she is driven by a small petroleum engine,has accomplished a task that the big, strong ships sent out by England failed to achieve. It is a curious fact that two of the smallest vessels sent into those waters have done some of the most memorable work. A Norwegian single-stick vessel is the first to make the Northwest Passage, and it was the steam yacht Fox that carried to Europe the first definite information of the fate of the Franklin expedition.

Our map shows the great islands and some of the myriad small ones that England added to the charts of the Arctic Ocean north of us between 1818 and 1859. It shows by a black line the tortuous route of the Gjöa. She entered Lancaster Sound from Baffin Bay in the summer of She threaded her way up this noble channel, which, though sometimes choked with ice, is one of the finest of arctic waterways when it is open. This is the route that Parry took in 1819 when he pushed his way to Melville Island, almost on the western verge of the great archipelago,—a voyage of education as well as of brilliant discovery, for not one of the sailors on his two ships could read or write when they left home and all of them had mastered these accomplishments when they returned.

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The map shows that when Amundsen reached Peel Sound he turned southward through that sound and Franklin Strait. Here he reached the field of the scientific research for which he had gone to the Arctic. He remained for many months to relocate the position of the north magnetic pole if he found that it had changed its place since James C. Ross located it on the west coast of Boothia in 1831. His mission also included a magnetic survey of the entire region around the magnetic pole. His camp was on King William Land, in a harbor where the Gjöa was perfectly protected from ice pressure.

Amundsen has made this survey, and his magnetic work covers an important area. It includes the west coast of Boothia, with the adjoining waters, and extends as far south as King William Land and as far west as Victoria Land, where

two or three of his men were at work a few months before he started on the journey west-ward

He accumulated a large amount of data relating to the behavior in those regions of magnetic variation, inclination, and intensity, the three elements of terrestrial magnetism; but as yet he has spoken only in general terms, and therefore his work in this field cannot be profitably discussed at this time. He sent his results to Nansen in a soldered metal tube, and the conclusions to be deduced from his extensive observations are not likely to be announced for some time to come. He is reported to have relocated the north magnetic pole in King William Land, but in the absence of a definite statement our map indicates the pole where Ross fixed it.

The magnetic work completed, the Gjöa hoisted anchor and steamed down Victoria Strait till she came almost or quite within sight of the American mainland; and here Amundsen saw the long, narrow channels leading westward between the islands and the mainland, and he knew that this was the Northwest Passage, the only feasible route for a vessel to pass to the north of our continent between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

Amundsen knew this because he had studied all the history of exploration among these islands. He knew what explorers on the American coast and in small boats in these narrow waterways had revealed. He said before he left home that he was coming back, if he could push his way, through the Northwest Passage that the Franklin expedition had discovered.

This was the pathos in the fate that overtook the Franklin party. It was sent from England to find the Northwest Passage; and as the poor fellows staggered to the southern islands and the mainland, dropping in their tracks from weakness and starvation, they knew that they had found it. They had traced the only way that a ship might travel from the Atlantic to reach this open summer highway. They knew that Dease and Simpson, and their lamented commander, too, who had died before them, had traveled overland to this north coast, had seen these channels for hundreds of miles, and had floated on their waters. If only the narrow stretch of ice that kept their two ships from the coastal waters might have been broken through before

their food-supplies were exhausted, the *Erebus* and the *Terror* would have passed over the road that the *Gjöa* has traveled, and the Franklin party would have been acclaimed, some fifty-eight years ago, as the discoverers of the Northwest Passage. The world gives them the credit now, but it was many years after the last man had perished before it was known what they had done.

This Northwest Passage may be briefly explained. The long coasts of the mainland are not clogged, like many other polar shores, with icebergs or glaciers or thick sea ice. The coast is low, the tundra behind it is only a little higher than the sea, and conditions are not favorable for the formation and flow of glaciers. Icebergs, therefore, are not found, because in the Arctic they are merely the broken-off ends of glaciers.

But from thirty to forty miles north of Point Barrow, the most northern point of the continent, stretches the great barrier of sea ice, with hummocks and ridges thrust, by pressure, from twenty to fifty feet above the general level, so that when McClure's *Investigator* got into the heavy floe the ice sometimes rose around her as high as the yardarms. As no islands intervene for hundreds of miles east of Bering Strait to protect the coast from the polar pack, why is it that this heavy ice is not forced down upon the shores?

It is because the coastal waters are comparatively shallow and the sea ice grounds miles away; and farther east the coasts of the mainland are protected from the sea ice, not only by shallow water, but also by the islands that extend almost continuously from Banks Land to the Atlantic end of Hudson Strait.

So the ice along the coast is of the winter's formation, and in summer it disappears entirely or is so narrowed by melting as to leave channels of greater or less width that are navigable for two or three months. The fact is, as Lieutenant Wheeler, of our revenue cutter service, recently said, this Northwest Passage has been made time and time again by the overlapping of the tracks of vessels between the Atlantic and the Pacific. San Francisco whalers have already pushed far eastward beyond the Mackenzie delta and the mouth of the Coppermine River. Collinson, during the Franklin search, took his vessel castward through these channels almost to the very waters from which the Gjöa started last summer, and a short sledge journey farther east brought him within sight of King William Land, but he little dreamed that the bodies of many of the men he was seeking were scattered along its shores.

In time this route may be of some importance. Mineral resources have been found along the northern edge of Canada, and some day they will be developed. This water route is by no means ideal, but, to some extent, it will facilitate the operations of miners and whalers.

Nine years ago. Lieutenant Jarvis, of the revenue cutter service, worked out the details of a plan for making the very journey that Amundsen has nearly completed, but in the opposite direction. His ambitious scheme was to start from Herschel Island, skirt the coast to King William Land, and then up through the channels to Baffin Bay and Disco, Greenland. Thence he proposed to cross the Atlantic to North Cape and make the Northeast Passage which Nordenskjöld accomplished in the Vega in 1878-79. Many of our revenue and naval officers volunteered for the expedition. But at that time only one of our revenue cutters was fit for ice work, and as she could not be spared for two or more seasons, the plan has not been carried out.

Our map shows the position of Herschel Island, west of the Mackenzie delta, where Amundsen began his sledge journey southward to Eagle, one of our Alaska mining towns. At Kay Point, near Herschel Island, the Gjöa is in safe winter quarters. She is now in well-known waters visited by whalers every season, and as soon as navigation opens next summer the little vessel will be able, in a few days, to reach the Pacific.

The broken line on the map from Bering Strait to Baffin Bay shows another Northwest Passage which was made by the British explorer McClure in 1850-53, a wonderful journey that secured for him and his men the prize of fifty thousand dollars offered by their government to the first crew that should make the long-sought passage. We see the route following the coast channels along Alaska as far east as Franklin Bay, where it turns north to Banks Land, on whose northeastern shores McClure's ship, the Investigator, was fast in the ice for two years and was finally abandoned. The journey was then continued, chiefly by sledge, but partly by ship, to Baffin Bay, at the mouth of Lancaster Sound.

The crew, amid terrible difficulties and suffering, had made the Northwest Passage. But not as Amundsen's handful of men have made it, through navigable waters and with only one ship. McClure's achievement was hailed as a great discovery, but the world heard later of the more feasible route which the Franklin expedition had proved to be attainable from the Atlantic Ocean.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION FROM VARIOUS POINTS OF VIEW.

N ATURALLY, Russia's political and industrial crisis occupies the leading place in most of the current American and European reviews and general periodicals. Perhaps the most vivid, graphic recital of the events themselves is Dr. E. J. Dillon's monthly "round up" in the December Contemporary Review. It is an impressive picture of the lurid scenes which are passing in Russia before the eyes of the skilled observer. His article is really a summary of events leading up to the present situation. When, on October 30, "the curtain was rung up on the last scene of the autocracy," even the severest critic must admit that the Czar played a most difficult part with dignity.

Dr. Dillon remarks that the manifesto granting a Finnish constitution is a curious instance of how things were done "constitutionally." Had the Czar done less, he hints, the people might have believed in their rulers more,—too good to be true, in fact. Here was an important

document, affecting not only Finnish privileges, but the rights and interests of Russians, promulgated as autocratically as ever, the cabinet being ignored. And the essence of the Czar's manifesto had been that henceforth no measure should become law without the sanction of the legislative chamber, a decision which had actually been pleaded by Witte as a reason for not granting concessions such as universal suffrage. That is an instance of what Dr. Dillon calls "hindrances from above."

But the hindrances from below were worse still. Demands, such as for an eight-hour day, were formulated which no government could entertain. And in the provinces the partisans of the old régime went on organizing "roughs and hooligans" into anti-reform brigades to intimidate the Liberals and decimate the Jews, with the result that, according to Dr. Dillon, in Odessa in a single week there were more men, women, and children slain than in all France



From the Illustrated London News

A PROCESSION OF REVOLUTIONISTS IN ODESSA AFTER THE ISSUE OF THE MANIFESTO OF OCTOBER 30.

"The Czar is with us now," was their cry.

during the Revolution. Dr. Dillon's view of the situation is sufficiently grave. The massacres are but one phase of the "counter-revolution."

There are others more dangerous which have not yet assumed definite shape. The most appalling of them all is the indignation of the inarticulate scores of millions of Russians whose name is being freely used by both reactionaries and revolutionaries, but whose wishes, strivings, traditions, and prejudices have been systematically ignored by all. If now they arise in their frenzy they may be expected to do deeds which will in sober truth stagger humanity and make the name of revolution hateful for generations.

THE AGRARIAN DEVASTATIONS.

To arouse these millions from their torpor, the revolutionists have offered them free land for their political support. The peasants' land hunger is such that this bribe is enough to make them ready to enter into an alliance with any group or faction, and agrarian disorders have become accordingly frequent. This is the explanation of the immense destruction of property, cutting down of forests, and gutting of manors. In Chernigov province alone, one hundred and thirty-nine estates have thus suffered. It is not a question of hatred or vengeance; personal feelings count for little, and the most popular man in the province is treated as badly as the most unpopular, except that in one case the destroyers are sorry that they "have to do it," in the other they are not.

THE FINANCIAL PERIL.

Financially, the panic has been such that men have been ready to lose 20 or 25 per cent. of their capital to save the rest. The official value of the ruble is no longer the same as its real value, and the treasury loses heavily, while the number of paper notes has increased till it is not very far from the limit allowed by law. Moreover, the debt to the Mendelssohns of Berlin fell due in December. The revolutionists have been in such a hurry that they have done serious harm by wounding the sensibilities of large and stolid masses of the population—a blunder for which Dr. Dillon prophesies all parties may have to pay dearly.

THE RELIGIOUS RESENTMENT.

As illustrating this he quotes conversations held quite recently between the president and Committee of the Municipality at St. Petersburg and a number of illiterate butchers, draymen, etc., stalwart supporters of the old order of things. They were ripe for revolt against the "intelligents," and had to be hastily pacified.

"What have you to say against the intelligents?"
"They crowd the streets and carry red flags and cry,



A COLD REJECTION.

CZAR NICHOLAS (offering a constitution—Alkotmany, in Hungarian): "Here, Bebuska (darling)—here is my tribute to your loveliness!"

Russia: "Too late, Batuska (Little Father); I prefer my good stout peasant husband to you."

From Borsszem Jankó (Budapest).

'Down with the Czar.'" "Well, but they don't harm you, eh?" "They do." "How so? Do they fire on you?" "No." "Do you object to red flags?" "We don't care anything about their flags, whether they are red, or green, or black." "Then what do you object to?" "We can't bear to have them shout out 'Down with the Czar,' and we won't stand it. That's all." "Anything else?" "Yes. Why do they scoff and jeer at us for going to church, and why call us men of the Black Hundred because we pray to God? Our fathers went to church and prayed to God, and we do as they. Why must these fellows come and abuse us for it? We do no harm to them. We didn't go about shouting anything against their people. Why do they insult the Czar and make fun of religion? That's why we are against them."

These men are types of scores of millions whom the revolutionary party cannot offend with impunity, yet evidently has offended.

The Counter-Revolution.

The special commissioner of the National Review sends to that magazine a much needed warning as to the existence of forces in Russia of which the revolutionaries and their Liberal friends take too little account. He says that the October strike nearly ruined the peasants, and added unspeakably to the misery of the famine-stricken districts. He thus summarizes

the substance of what the great mass of the inarticulate Russian nation is saying and thinking just now about the cosmopolitan surface layers which are at present carrying all before them. He says that he has collected these views from a great number of peasants in different provinces of the empire.

Together with the Little and White Russians we form about 75 per cent. of the entire population of the empire. The only other nationalities who come into consideration are the Poles, who constitute about 6 per cent., and the Jews, who are about 2 per cent. Consequently, we are Russia, and our voice should be decisive as to the general lines of the government. The details, no doubt, must be left to others who understand such matters, but the direction ought to be imparted by us. Our views, beliefs, strivings, and even our prejudices, ought to be taken into consideration. You may say that we are ignorant people. Well, we are. But such as we are we have built up an empire, and it is only meet that we should say on what lines it is to run. And now it appears that we are not to be consulted in the matter at all. Strangers -Jews, Poles, Finns, Germans, Armenians, Europeanized Russians-are now in power or are influencing those who are. They are speaking in our name, insulting our Czar, blaspheming our God, forcing the government to act in our name but against our wishes and our interests. Now, with all this we are resolved to finish once for all. The men who shout and make speeches and carry red flags at processions may be polished and well taught, whereas we are rough and illiterate, but they



From a photograph.

ST. PETERSBURG STRIKERS IN THE NEVSKY PROSPEKT—THE FAMOUS STREET OF THE CAPITAL—CHANTING THE "MARSEILLAISE."



THE NEW LIGHT FROM THE NORTH.

From Borsszem Jankó (Budapest).

are not the nation and have no right to speak in its name. This is true, not only because they are Jews or Germans, Poles or Finns, but because they have nothing in common with us, neither religious nor political principles, traditions or strivings-nothing. And there are thousands of Russians in whose blood there is no more trace of foreign strain than in our own about whom the some thing may be truly said,—tested by the standard which we, the people, recognize as correct, they are foreigners. They despise our religion, they sneer at our superstitions, they condemn our patriotism as narrow-mindedness or fanaticism. The stuff of which the cement is made that binds the elements of political communities together is not book learning, nor the gift of talking, nor even the talent for organizing. It is character. Learning and its products are the property of all humanity,-they are cosmopolitan; character is the possession of the race, the force that molds its religion, inspires its poetry, preserves its social fabric. The men who are snatching at the reins of government to-day have none of that stuff.

That, says the National Review commissioner, is the credo of the Russian people.

Prince Kropotkin's Hope,

In the Nineteenth Century, Prince Kropotkin reviews the revolution, and does not hesitate to

prophesy a happy outcome from the present troubles. He declares of the authorities that

they will have to recognize in a few months hence universal suffrage as the basis of representative government in Russia, and the legislative autonomy of Poland as the best, the only possible, means for keeping the two countries, Russia and Poland, firmly linked together.

This writer recognizes elements of truth in the common description of Count Witte as the Necker of the Russian revolution.

Like Necker, Witte is a successful financier, and he also is a "mercantilist;" he is an admirer of the great industries, and would like to see Russia a money-making country, with its Morgans and Rockefellers making colossal fortunes in Russia itself and in all sorts of Manchurias. But he has also the limited political intelligence of Necker, and his views are not very different from those which the French minister expressed in his work "Pouvoir Exécutif," published in 1792. Witte's ideal is a Liberal, half-absolute and half-constitutional monarchy, of which he, Witte, would be the Bismarck, standing by the side of a weak monarch, and sheltered from his whims by a docile middle-class parliament. In that parliament he would even accept a score of Labor members-just enough to render inoffensive the most prominent labor agitators, and to have the claims of labor expressed in a parliamentary way. Witte is daring, he is intelligent, and he is possessed of an admirable capacity for work; but he will not be a great statesman, because he scoffs at those who believe that in politics, as in everything else, complete honesty is the most successful policy. In the polemics which Herbert Spencer carried on some years ago in favor of "principles" in politics, Witte would have joined, I suppose, his opponents, and I am afraid he secretly worships the "almighty-dollar policy" of Cecil Rhodes. In Russia he is thoroughly distrusted.

THE POTENCY OF THE STRIKE.

The prince bears witness to the ascendency of labor in the Russian revolution; not Social Democrats, or revolutionary Socialists, or anarchists, but workmen, have taken the lead. He adds the following significant comment:

Many years ago the general strike was advocated by the Latin workingmen as a weapon which would be irresistible in the hands of labor for imposing its will. The Russian revolution has demonstrated that they were right. Moreover, there is not the slightest doubt that if the general strike has been capable of forcing the centuries-old institution of autocracy to capitulate it will be capable also of imposing the will of the laborers upon capital; and that the workingmen, with the common sense of which they have given such striking proofs, will find also the means of solving the labor problem, so as to make industry the means, not of personal enrichment, but of satisfying the needs of the community.

How It Will Affect Europe.

"Perseus" contributes to the Fortnightly Review a paper entitled "Europe and the Russian

Revolution." It opens by a very just and lucid explanation of the causes which have brought about the present collapse. He pleads strongly for Count Witte, who represents the British ideal of constitutional monarchy upon a capitalistic and individualistic basis. To carry out his policy, Witte needed time and a fair chance, and the Liberals by holding aloof denied him both. After this introduction, "Perseus" proceeds to discuss the possible results of a failure of Count Witte's policy. It is certain, he says, that the collapse of the state organization of the Czardom and its effacement as a great power will be to make Germany dictator of the Continent, but that the Kaiser has assured the Czar that his throne will be upheld, or restored in the last resort by German bayonets. The establishment of a Russian republic would so weaken monarchy in Austria, Italy, Spain, and Germany that the Kaiser, in self-defense, would be bound to restore the Romanov dynasty at all costs. Anarchy in the Baltic provinces will be suppressed by invasion, if necessary, and German invasion "Perseus" regards as inevitable in Poland should the Poles attempt to secure their own autonomy. The Poles, he says, are twenty millions strong. They are more numerous than any European nation, excepting Russians, Germans, British, French, and Italians. Germany has five army corps massed on the frontiers of Russian Poland. Should matters come to the worst, a conflict would ensue which would be likely to involve, at no very remote date, a German occupation of St. Petersburg, as well as of Warsaw. Such action on the part of Germany would lead to such a commotion in Austria-Hungary as to open the way of the resolution of the pan-German dream, which would bring the Hohenzollern empire down to Trieste, and possibly to Salonika. "Perseus" thinks that England, France, and Italy would be bound to wage a life-anddeath struggle which Germany might counter by changing its policy toward the Poles and creating a great central European state in which Poland would hold pretty much the same position which Hungary now holds to Austria. Everything depends upon whether the Moderates will rally around Witte.

A Peasants' Meeting in Russia.

In the Contemporary Review, a writer signing himself "B. Pares" describes a peasants' meeting in the province of Tver, north of Moscow, between Moscow and Novgorod provinces. There is no Russian, he says, who does not admit that on the present situation the peasants, being 90 per cent. of the population, will say the last word, though what that word will be "no one

who has any real knowledge of the peasants will

pretend to foretell."

Knowing that a peasant meeting would be held in a certain canton, nominally to elect a cantonal elder for three years, the writer determined to be present. The peasants were in a district in which there is much passing backward and forward to Moscow and St. Petersburg, in which towns some 40 per cent. of the adult males had at one time or other worked. The meeting took place in front of the cantonal court-house; and some one hundred and fifty village representatives attended it with the cantonal clerk. The "Land Captain," a country gentleman and petty tyrant, usually highly reactionary, was not present. A young peasant, careful to avoid disloyal utterances, mounts on the table and puts to the meeting nine resolu-Briefly, these are as follows:

(1) Better education—a moderately worded, sensible demand, at once agreed to; (2) abolition of class distinctions, establishment of a common criminal and civil code for all, and abolition of land captains; (3) reform of taxation, which required explanation, but was agreed to; (4) reform of land laws, which, with point 2, excited the keenest interest; (5) freedom of speech, the very idea of which the peasants seem hardly to have grasped, but to which they agreed when they understood it; (6) an eight-hour working day and freedom of strikes, which required explanation, and even then the economic results of an eight-hour factory day were little apprehended; (7) popular representation, including woman suffrage, even for peasant women, "the extreme daring of which" did not excite a comment, but, after satisfactory explanation of what "secret" voting meant, this resolution was carried; (8) cessation of the war, which was objected to on the ground that peasants must not meddle with imperial policy; this proposal had to be materially modified before it could obtain the necessary two-thirds majority; and (9), adopted without dissent, pardon of all exiles and prisoners "who have suffered for the rightful cause of the people."

The Resurrection of Finland.

Mr. W. T. Stead contributes to the Contemporary an account of the informal negotiations between the governor general of Finland and the leading representatives of the Finlanders on the very eve of the revolution which finally disposed of Bobrikovism and the Bobrikovski. Mr. Stead says:

It is Easter morn in Helsingfors. But the resurrection which they have been celebrating these last days is not religious, but national. Finland has risen again, and every one thereat doth exceedingly rejoice, not even excepting the Russians, without whose good-will this peaceful festival of the re-birth of a nation would have been stained with blood. There has been a marvelous completeness, a dramatic effect, about the resurrection of Finland which sets it apart from all similar re-births of oppressed nationalities.



NICHOLAS AND HIS PEOPLE,

The Russian situation as seen by the Wahre Jakob (Stuttgart).

Then follows a *précis* of the heads of the argument on each side, from which the following is a typical extract:

Prince Obolenski stated the Russian point of view pretty much as follows:

Finland had been the favored bride of her Russian bridegroom for nearly a hundred years. So long had lasted the honeymoon that when the time came for Finland to accept the ordinary obligations and perform the ordinary duties of a Russian housewife she resented it as a cruel oppression, and had gone sulking ever since.

To which the Finlanders reply:

The Finnish bride, although married by force, had been guaranteed that the so-called honeymoon should last forever. Her guarantee was the oath of her grand duke to observe the Finnish constitution, which was the legal charter of her so-called honeymoon condition. The attempt to reduce her to the position of one among the many housewives of her polygamous Russian husband was a violation of the marriage contract to which she would never consent.

Prince Obolenski:

That the Russian husband was in a very difficult position owing to the envy of the other wives, who at first did not realize Finland's exceptionally favored condition. But when they found it out they were filled with jealousy, and insisted that Finland should be reduced to their common level. This was especially the case with Old Muscovy, the first and oldest wife of Russia, who complained that her hard-won earnings were squandered upon this petted young wife in the north, who contributed nothing to the household income, and would take only a shadowy part in the de-

fense of the home. The Russian husband, finding himself compelled either to treat all his wives on the Finnish honeymoon basis or to reduce Finland to the level of the others, chose what seemed the easier alternative. He could not level up without destroying the ancient autocratic constitution of his whole establishment, so he tried to level down Finland to the general level.

The Finlanders:

That this is true and a confirmation of what we have always stated. But we object to be sacrificed to the jealousy and envy of the first wife, who had insisted upon the marriage with Finland, and who had accepted the terms of the marriage contract. Nor did they believe that many of the Russian people really desired to reduce Finland to their level.

Prince Obolenski:

That this discussion is academic and explanatory rather than political. For as a matter of fact the attempt begun in 1899 to abolish the honeymoon has now been practically abandoned. His appointment was practically the signal of reconciliation, and of reconciliation on a basis which was most favorable to the Finnish wife. Due allowance ought to be made for the prestige of the husband and for the mortified jealousy of the first wife, but his main object was to restore the status quo ante Bobrikov as completely as possible and as speedily as possible considering the difficulties created by the period of conflict, considering also the intensely strong national sentiment of the great Russian party who considered Finland unduly favored by the government, and considering the somewhat churlish reluctance shown by the Finns to reciprocate the friendly treatment of the Russians.

The Part Played by the Peace of Portsmouth.

The Anglo-Japanese treaty, says a recent issue of the Vyestnik Yevropy (St. Petersburg) editorially, appears to be a direct logical outcome of Japanese success in the war just ended, for this success facilitated the acceptance by Russia of the terms offered by Japan. It was likewise England's policy to urge a speedy conclusion of peace, as demanded by her commercial interests. Hence, "when the psychological moment for a final decision at the Portsmouth conference arrived the government at Tokio could not but agree to the terms acceptable to Russia." After citing several paragraphs of the Anglo-Japanese treaty, the writer attempts to show that the terms proposed by Russia were made acceptable to Japan thanks to the Anglo-Japanese treaty. Indeed, Japan had more than realized her antebellum dreams. She became, in fact, not only the arbiter of the whole of eastern Asia, but also a participant in the regulation of the political affairs of the entire Asiatic continent. Essentially, England and Japan have divided Asia between them. From now on no other power may undertake anything there without their consent. The dominant power of the English fleet, backed by the land forces of Japan, excludes now the possibility of any effective outright competition in the complicated Asiatic interests.

Germany and France will retain their colonial possessions in Asia only so long as they maintain friendly relations with the Japanese and the English. Russia must give up all active political enterprise in central Asia or on the Pacific Ocean, either entirely or at least for a long period. This puts an end to the aggressive ambitious plans of our warriors. In spite of the declaration of State Councilor Witte in his last official dispatch from Portsmouth, Russia has for the time being ceased to be a great power in the far East.

"We have lost our reputation as a great military power on the fields of Manchuria and in the Straits of Korea," continues the *Vyestnik*, "and official Russia appears now in the eyes of Europe in an entirely new character from that in which it did before the war."

Our fatherland has become transformed from a powerful ally and friend capable of serving as a support for others in times of adversity into an object of condescending pity and patronage. No one seeks our political friendship, and there is no demand for it, and nevertheless we are importuned by friends who are anxious to give us useful advice, or even to undertake the management of our disorganized affairs. All feel an unusual sympathy for us since we were overcome by the Japanese. The Americans became filled suddenly with sympathy toward Russia, and announced it loudly to our chief plenipotentiary at Portsmouth. The English have suggested an Anglo-Russian understanding with the Anglo-Japanese treaty as a basis, a treaty which, in the main, is directed against us. The French and the Germans actually quarrel over their concern for the Russian finances, and our patriots think that western Europe and America have at last understood and appreciated the great qualities of official Russia. Many are apparently forgetting the true situation, and our political rôle after the peace of Portsmouth seems to them quite flattering to us.

Without deprecating at all the personal services, the good qualities, and the abilities of our former minister of finance, Witte, continues the Russian review, "we may yet be led to believe that he was honored in the West not so much for his past and present achievements as for his probable future rôle, for his being the only acceptable candidate for the position of the leading minister of the Russian Empire."

According to the opinion prevailing abroad, Russia is passing now through a period of internal weakness and of a difficult national crisis, and her present position may be taken advantage of by the more ambitious foreign powers. Hence the friendly care for our interests as displayed by Germany during our unfortunate war, and which appears to Witte so touching and so unselfish, even though this unselfishness was amply rewarded by our concessions in the arrangement of the Russo-German commercial treaty. If Russia is now in a state of decline and cannot alone manage her disorganized colossal estate, the foreign powers, and foremost among them Germany, will readily come to her rescue, just as they are helping Turkey, and as they had previously helped China.

The Net Result So Far.

In his article "Das Neue Russland." in the Sunday edition of the New York Staats-Zeitung, Mr. Herman Rosenthal passes in review the principal political events of this year in Russia, and shows how, by its favorite method of government d la Plehve, Czarism slid down the slope leading to the precipice into which sooner or later it must fall. The various manifestoes, issued on the spur of the moment, not only failed to check the revolutionary movement, but, by their ambiguity and lack of sincerity, caused the Liberals to link their fortunes with those of the Social Revolutionists. Thus, one saw the representatives of the zemstvos, the students, the jurists, the professors, and the workmen's organizations holding everywhere meetings in spite of the existing prohibitions and showing themselves more and more exacting in their wellplanned demands. They required not more and not less than a government based on democratic principles; and being conscious of their aim, they will reach it at the end.

The still little-appreciated German thinker and satirist, Lichtenberg, said:

One can get a clearer insight into states when one considers them as human individuals. They are then also children, and so long as they remain such monarchy is the best form of government for them. But as soon as these children grow up they are unwilling to be subjected to the same treatment, for, as is often the case, they are then really wiser than their father.

This simple sentence accurately explains the latest events in the vast empire of the Czar. The Russian people,—the word "people" taken in a more restricted sense,—are past the spoon; they have become wiser than the "Little Father."

A meaner government than that of Nicholas II. cannot be imagined. An absolutistic police state, with the Neronian cruelty of a minister like Plehve, who considered the setting of one class of the population against another to be a just policy, seemed an anachronism at the beginning of the twentieth century. The excesses of the perverse grand-ducal tyrant Sergius Alexandrovich discredited the whole royal family in the eyes of society. The incredible demoralization of the army and navy; the colossal corruption of the higher and lower officials; the utter ruin of the already muchneglected husbandry; in short, the whole rickety structure of the autocratic and bureaucratic system based upon hierarchic principles was rotten to the core, and its collapse was unavoidable. Beneath its ruins are buried thousands of innocent human victims. Such, however, is the eternal march of the world's history! Each deliverance must be bought by the nations with their blood.

Now the deliverance is at hand. The conclusion of peace between Japan and Russia and the Anglo-Japanese alliance accelerated Russia's

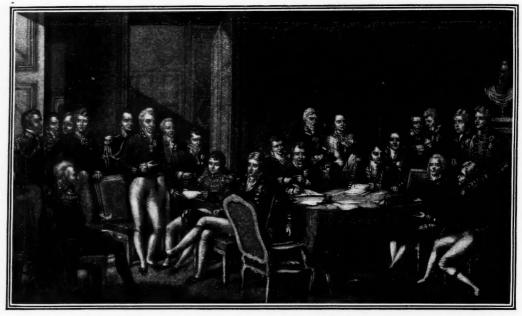
political defeat in the far East. However, public opinion among the intelligent class and in the Liberal press agrees that this forced renunciation of the great projects and enterprises in Asia is by no means to be counted among the unfortunate results of the inglorious war.

During the whole period extending from the death of Plehve to the publication of the latest manifesto of the Czar, the most prominent part in Russian politics was played by the former minister of finance and the present prime minister, Sergius Yurevich Witte. To his lot fell the elaboration of a modus operandi for the regulation of the relations between the helpless, obstinate autocracy and the energetic, progressive popular forces,—a very heavy task, for which he does not seem to be particularly fit. Indeed, owing to the love of peace of the interested powers, and to the collaboration of the haut finance and the peace-loving powers, he succeeded in concluding an honorable peace and in win ning the sympathy of the American public.

But he neither enjoys the love of the Russian court circles nor the respect and confidence of the Russian Liberals. The Witte manifesto is regarded, both by Russian Liberals and by the European press, as an awkward document utterly devoid of political wisdom, logical correctness, and manly resoluteness. It bears the unmistakable traces of the nervousness of the ambitious secretary of state who is impatient to extort the signature from the vacillating master, in order that he may reach the summit of power. Thus, the representatives of the zemstvos of Moscow refused to assist the new prime minister, and formulated new demands. And, indeed, the latest political events seem to justify their distrust of the government of the Czar, for it is responsible for the excesses committed by the police and the Cossacks; for the Jewish massacres, which, according to the documentary evidence published by the Jewish organ Vos Rhod, had been instigated by Trepov; for the slaughtering of students and intellectuals by the Black Hundred, and for other similar crimes which have lately been committed in Russia.

But is, then, the deliverance really at hand? The numerous pessimists, who are not well acquainted with the actual situation in new Russia, express their doubts. Others go even so far as to affirm that the one hundred millions of peasants are foreign to the revolutionary movement and were only incited by all kinds of agitators to rebel against the Czar.

This, indeed, is a very weak argument, for history teaches that in all great revolutions the work of deliverance was executed by the few chosen ones who by their indomitable courage and their perseverance in the execution of their well-laid plans win the confidence of the masses. Such honest, courageous, disinterested, and capable leaders abound in Russia, and, in spite of the Tatar instincts of the reactionary officials, the old system has collapsed once for all.



THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA, IN 1815, AT WHICH THE FATE OF POLAND WAS DECIDED.

(At this congress all the principal European nations were represented, and the illustration, which is from a rare steel print, shows some of the most famous delegates, including Wellington, Nesselrode, Metternich, Humboldt, and Talleyrand.)

RUSSIAN POLAND'S FIGHT FOR AUTONOMY.

R ESTATING the historical relations of the Polish people to the "overstates," Russia, Austria, and Prussia, J. L. Poplawski, writing in the Przegland Wszechpolski (Pan-Polish Review), of Cracow, reminds us that the legal and historical basis of the relation of the kingdom of Poland to the Russian state are the provisions of the Congress of Vienna contained in the act closing that congress (June 9, 1815), which was to constitute the guarantee of the treaties concluded, on May 3, 1815, between Russia and Prussia, and between Russia and Austria. The participants in the congress did not agree to the pretensions of Russia to regard the grand duchy of Warsaw, which had been created by Napoleon, as a conquered province; they consented only to the uniting of the duchy to Russia as a separate state, which Article I. of the act clearly states:

The duchy of Warsaw, with the exception of the provinces and districts [the parts of the duchy re-ceded to Prussia and to Austria, and the (then) republic of Cracow] which are otherwise disposed of by the following articles, is united to the Russian Empire, to which it shall be irrevocably attached by its constitution, to be possessed by his Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, his heirs and successors, in perpetuity. His imperial majesty reserves to himself the right to give to this state, enjoying a distinct administration, such

an interior [territorial] extension as he will regard as fit. He shall assume, with his other titles, the title of King of Poland, agreeably to the form used and sanctioned for the titles attached to his other possessions.

The Poles that are subjects, respectively, of Russia, Austria, and Prussia shall obtain a representation and national institutions regulated by the mode of political existence that each of the governments to which they will belong will regard as useful and proper to grant them.

THE LEGAL BASIS OF POLAND'S FIGHT.

The second paragraph of the first article of the treaty of Vienna is the source, observes Mr. Poplawski, of all the erroneous or intentionally perverted opinions of the politico-legal relation of the kingdom of Poland to Russia of some Russian diplomatists and jurists, who, like Martens and Korkunov, argue that the Russian Emperor, conferring on the kingdom a representation and national institutions, "such as he regarded as proper," could revoke that conditional promise, could abrogate the constitution, and could change the politico-legal system of the country.

Korkunov even indicates a seeming contradiction between the second paragraph and the first, in which it is said that the kingdom "is united to the Russian Empire . . . by its constitution, to be possessed by his Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, his heirs and successors," from which it would follow that a constitution is the sinc qua non of the dominion of the Russian Emperor in Poland. Meanwhile, the second paragraph,—upon which the Poles in Posen, Prussian Poland, base their right to separate national institutions,—so far as it pertains to the Russo-Polish relation, refers not to the kingdom of Poland, but to the other parts of the old republic of Poland, which belong to Russia,—Lithuania and the Ruthenian provinces (Volhynia and the Ukraine),—and which the Congress of Vienna did not include in the kingdom of Poland created by it.

HOW RUSSIA HAS VIOLATED HER COMPACT.

After it had rejected the "pretensions" of Russia, the Congress of Vienna declared the union to Russia of a part of the duchy of Warsaw as a separate state (état),—the kingdom of Poland. The condition of the Russian Emperor's governing this country is the granting to it of a constitution and the preservation of a separate administration. The expression, both in the treaty of Vienna and in Article I. of the constitution promulgated by Emperor Alexander I. (December 24, 1815), that the kingdom is to be united to Russia forever, testifies explicitly that it is a question here of a union of two states endowed with equal rights. This is testified also by Article III. of the constitution, declaring the hereditability of the Polish crown in the Russian dynasty; this is testified also by the provision for a separate regency, by the fact that the kingdom did not take part in the wars carried on by Russia, etc. In a word, this is the relation of a real union, even less close than that which until recently joined Sweden and Norway; hence, some writers speak of it as of a personal union, depending solely on the fact of having the same monarch.

This is not the relation of a grant, which is made by one party and which may be taken back, or of a contract, which is made between two parties and which one party may break off. The kingdom of Poland was united to Russia by virtue of the enactments of the Congress of Vienna, the competency of which Russia recognized, and on conditions which she accepted. The relation of the kingdom of Poland to Russia has the sanction of international law, and not of a Russian state law. We, Poles, may not recognize that relation, because our assent to it was not asked; but the breach of that relation by us in 1830 did not at all absolve Russia from her formal engagements. So did those states understand this question which protested against the stripping of the congressional kingdom of Poland of its constitution and against the changes in the administration of the country.

To the question whether appealing by the Poles to the provisions of the Congress of Vienna and to the fundamental articles of the constitution of 1815 is possible, not so much from political as from moral and sentimental considerations, since it might be observed that the Congress of Vienna, properly speaking, sanctioned, in the name of Europe, a fourth partition of Poland, while the constitution of 1815 declares the perpetual union of the kingdom with Russia, the writer in the *Przegland Wszechpolski* makes reply:

As regards the Congress of Vienna, it acknowledged only the accomplished fact of the partition of Poland, but it did not, by any means, sanction that fact. The creation of the kingdom of Poland and of the republic of Cracow; the provision that the Poles that are subjects of Russia, Prussia, and Austria shall obtain a representation and national institutions; the right given to the Poles [by Article XIV. of the treaty of Vienna] of availing themselves of the means of communication ["the free navigation of the rivers and canals throughout the whole extent of old Poland"], and of the free exchange of the products of agriculture and of industry on the whole extent of the old republic of Poland ["the circulation of the products of the soil and of industry between the different Polish provinces"],-all this testifies that the majority of the powers participating in the congress understood the monstrosity of the partition of one nation and of the stripping of it of political self-activity, and that those powers wanted to amend that enormity, even though in part.

But it is really not a question of that. Our right to self-active existence needs no sanction. Its basis, and sanction as well, is our will. But if in the name of national interest we reckon with the conditions of the moment, if we must limit our will by the range of feasibility, then we should exploit all that can facilitate for us the attainment of the desired object. In the defense of our own persons, in private affairs, we all appeal to laws, the injustice of which we recognize,if they protect us. Russian jurisdiction in Poland is certainly summa injuria; and yet, we have recourse to that jurisdiction and to the Russian laws in the defense of our life, honor, or property. If that is proper and moral in personal affairs, then it is still more so in the defense of national rights and interests. Every means ought here to be exploited; it is not allowed to disregard any.

But we must know, not only what we claim, but also on what we base our claims. We cannot base our claims, in presence of the opposite party, on our interest. For, in order to obtrude one's own interest upon some one else, one must have great power, and if we had that, we plainly would retake with our own force what was taken from us by foreigners by violence. But we likewise cannot base our claims on the interest of the Russian state or of the Russian nation. That would be insincere, and, therefore, ineffectual, and derogatory to us. Hence, it remains to us to base our aspirations on the law, such as it is, of which we can avail ourselves.

Hungarians, Swedes, and Finns, this writer points out, have already won their national fight or are sure to by appealing to the legal basis of their relation to the governing state, demonstrating how the "overstate" had not kept its promise. Poland, he believes, must follow their example.

THE AUSTRIAN KAISER'S DREAM AND ITS FULFILLMENT.

THE Austro-Hungarian Empire, says Henri de Weindel in the Vie Illustrèe (Paris), is tormented to-day by the same ills that agitated it in 1848. Nothing in the imperial situation has changed since that time, unless it be that the empire is weaker than it was at the time of the revolution, and that the present-day assailants are a great deal stronger than its enemies of nearly sixty years ago. "Francis Joseph's political ideas (like his epilepsy) are hereditary," declares this French writer.

In this conglomerate empire there are at least eight independent races, each inspired by its own aspirations to act in its own way, conscious of its powerlessness to affiliate with the neighboring races, averse to rather than in sympathy with them, forming an empire made up of separate countries and with not one common point of agreement either with their composite members or with their head. Rapidly sketching Austrian history since the accession of the present Emperor, Mr. Weindel characterizes Francis Joseph as blind and stiff-necked. He says:

Either because he could not or would not understand that an ultra-centralist policy cannot fail to irritate and to foment discord between different and dissimilar nationalities, Francis Joseph committed a very grave error -one of many. Looking over the brief years since 1848, we find that all the conflicts which convulsed the unhappy empire were caused by the errors of his reign. Francis Joseph ignored the exigencies of the people of his different possessions. He did not make any attempt to reconcile his views with them until he had ruled them and struggled with them and tormented them for twenty years; and, at last, when he yielded he did it only by one-half, as the Hapsburgs have always done everything. He did not attempt to finish his work. He was always satisfied with half measures. The constitution of 1860 endowed the Austrian Empire with a parliament and created diets in all the provinces. But what good did that do? Germans, Czechs, Hungarians,none were satisfied. When the new parliament opened (May 1, 1861), most of the seats were vacant. There was not a Deputy from Bohemia, Hungary, Transylvania, or Croatia present!

FRANCIS JOSEPH'S FIRST "FORCED CONCESSION."

When (in 1867) Francis Joseph decided to divide his empire into two parts, Austria and Hungary, continues this French writer, it was too late. The evil had gone too far to be remedied. A great political party in Hungary gave a discontented assent to the compromise which, despite the concessions made by the institution of an Hungarian Government, still bound Hungary to Austria,—so far as concerned finances, foreign affairs, customs duties, and the army. The Czechs in Bohemia and the Poles in Galicia

clamored for the same rights for themselves that Francis Joseph had given the Hungarians. They demanded to be told why he had not caused himself to be crowned King of Bohemia and King of Galicia, just as he had caused himself to be crowned King of Hungary.

He had dowered Hungary with a parliament and a government,-what was the reason that he had not given the Czechs and the Poles these things? Such were the cries raised continually through a reign of forty years. The struggles gained strength and bitterness year by year, and during that time each separate race stood its ground, jealous of its neighbor and clamorous for an equal share of all that the Emperor gave his favorites. The convulsive and individual grip was not relaxed even for one hour. Now, while the world is taking stock in the great bankruptcy of a power, it is important to note that, in the beginning, it would have been an easy matter for the Emperor to solve his problem. At that time the national sentiment was a new and very diminutive craft just starting timidly from the stocks to take its way to the waterways of liberalism. At that time nothing was needed but a pilot. To-day, the craft is directed. Fifty years ago, Francis Joseph was a dreamer. If he had awakened from his dream of centralization, if he had not choked back the just expression of national sentiment, the exigencies of the clamorous sons of his empire never would have reached their present state. There would have been no cry for a dissolution of the monarchy. In 1848 the Hungarians asked for one thing,-personal government. They are not asking for anything now; they are working to destroy the last tie binding them to Austria.-the army. If they gain this point,-if Austria, forced to it by continually increasing opposition, accord Hungary the army and the frontier customs establishments that she demands,-the community of the two parts of the empire will exist only in name.

HOW HIS EMPIRE HAS SHRUNK.

Francis Joseph came to the throne absolute sovereign of an empire embracing all the central part of Europe, and he has been forced to yield up one province after another in worse than useless wars. "He would have abdicated rather than to have given up the most insignificant parcel of his power."

Now, because he is afraid that Hungary is about to be plucked from his crown, he is forced to appear before the world in the piteous plight of a constitutional sovereign who has no authority for his own use and no hope of leaving power or anything else to his successor. Marrying because he loved and was beloved, he crushed the happiness of his life with his own hands. To-day he stands like a harmless maniac, gazing about him from amid ruins. From the fields that once bloomed for full harvest death has mown his wife, his sons, and his brother. The field is waste land, where nothing lives but weeds, and the abandoned monarch is alone in the great, cold, echoing halls of the solemn Hapsburg palace.

WHY SCANDINAVIA WANTED A NORWEGIAN REPUBLIC.

A NUMBER of analytical articles on different phases of the status in Scandinavia appear in the Danish illustrated review Det Ny Aurhundrede (The New Century), of Copenhagen. An extended editorial in the current number attempts to set forth with comments the sentiment prevailing in Denmark and Sweden in the matter of Prince Charles' election to the throne of Norway. The writer begins by stating that the treaty of Karlstad, announcing the dissolution of the Scandinavian union, was received with great calmness in Sweden. The Riksdag, assembled in special session, speedily ratified the convention, which appears to have caused general satisfaction throughout the whole country.

But, while accepting the separation calmly, Sweden felt quite differently in the matter of the election of a Danish prince to the Norwegian throne. It may be said that almost the entire Swedish press has sounded a note of strong disapproval of the Norwegian selection, a note of disapproval which amounts almost to a protest, and which is sustained by Swedish popular feeling. It is claimed in Sweden that Prince Charles was really chosen as a "measure of revanche" for Denmark's loss of Norway to Sweden in 1814.

Commenting on this, the Danish review declares that there is not the slightest idea of revenge in Denmark. If the Swedes think so, they misunderstand the Danish character. Denmark now believes that the separation of 1814 was natural and righteous. There is not the slightest intention, moreover, nor even thought, in Denmark, of reacquiring the southern Swedish provinces which were formerly subject to the Danish crown. "If the Danes have sided with the Norwegians in the recent crisis, it is only by reason of their belief that a people ought to have the right to govern itself if it is capable of doing so."

The real feeling of the Danish people regarding the Norwegian selection of a king, according to this Copenhagen review, is "unrestricted astonishment."

It is almost inconceivable to the Danes that the Norwegians, having just obtained their liberty, should be willing to give away some of it and return under the yoke of a monarch, with all the disadvantages that entails. The acceptance of Prince Charles is followed by the regrets of the Danish people. The latter are perfectly well aware of the suspicion which his selection will arouse in Sweden, since the Swedes could not be expected to look for anything but disfavor on the spectacle of a prince of the Danish royal family on the Norwegian throne. No matter how King Oscar may word his formal approval, fears of a Danish-Norwegian conspiracy against Sweden will not die out in the lastnamed country. Therefore, the Danes are sorry. They



THE NEW HAMLET, PRINCE OF DENMARK.

Hamlet Haakon: "Poor Oscar! To be or not to be—King of Norway—that was his problem."

(Note the crown-shaped skull taken from the coffin labeled "The Swedish Casket.")—From Fischietto (Turin).

expect that bitterness will arise, and that the enthusiasm over a united Scandinavia will be dampened.

The writer of this editorial concludes with the statement that if the Danish people could have their way Prince Charles would never have become the King of Norway.

A Norwegian View of the Monarchy-Republic Question.

A good deal of discussion regarding the final choice of governmental form for Norway preceded the election. The magazine already quoted (Det Ny Aarhundrede, Copenhagen) contains an article by a well-known Norwegian lawyer and politician, Mr. Gustav Heiberg, criticising the Storthing for "prejudging the issue." Recalling to mind the early offer of the Storthing to have a prince of the house of Bernadotte occupy the Norwegian throne, Mr. Heiberg severely



"Ja" (yes), the ballot in favor of royalty (Prince Charles of Denmark).

criticises the Storthing for not permitting the people to have untrammeled choice. He says on this point:

Immediately after the coup d'état of June 7, last [when Norway formally declared her separation], many Norwegian voices were raised, asserting in no uncertain tone that the present was Norway's opportunity to adopt a form of government more suited to the Norwegian people and the age than a monarch could ever be. The offer of the Storthing to King Oscar temporarily silenced these voices. At the same time, they insisted that unless Norway's foreign policy demanded a king the whole question of the form of government should be decided in the forum of the people. The cabinet and the Storthing, however, were averse to letting the decision pass out of their hands, and the press, which supported them, initiated an illogical campaign to prove that although the monarchy had been abolished for the time being the throne of Norway existed,-it was only vacant. Therefore, the people were asked to vote,-not as to whether there should be a monarchy or a republic, but whether they should accept Prince Charles of Denmark as their king. This was begging the entire question.

This writer declares that the Scandinavian journalists who found an overwhelming desire for a monarchy in Norway were entirely mistaken. It is now six hundred years since Norway has actually had a national monarchy, and during the years which the house of Bernadotte

ruled the country has not gained any respect for the monarchical idea.

If sufficient time had been given before pressing the choice of the Danish prince, there is no doubt that the common, democratic sense of the Norwegian people would have triumphed and demanded a more modern form of government than the monarchy. For many years Norway has really been governed as a democratic republic, and everything has gone well with her, in spite of crises. The choice of a republic would have been but the logical inference from the political and social evolution of the last five decades in Norway.

How the Norwegians Received the Treaty of Karlstad.

The Norwegian viewpoint in the matter of the mutual concessions at Karlstad over the terms of separation is presented by an anonymous Norwegian political writer. He declares that the demands of the Swedish Government regarding the destruction of the Norwegian fortresses would never have been acceded to had it not "plainly been read between the lines that in case of a refusal Norway might look for an attack in the future." The one hundred million kroner, the mobilization of the Swedish army, and the hostile tone of the Swedish press spoke too plain a language to be misunderstood. "It was another variety of the 'money or your life'

threat." Elaborating the fortress question, this writer says:

In order to grasp the full significance to Norway of this fortress question, it is necessary to keep in mind the situation of the Norwegian capital, Christiania. The purpose of the fortresses in question was not to protect the capital from the land side, but merely to prevent a sudden attack from the sea. The fortresses were constructed in order to hold up an outside enemy until troops could be gathered sufficient for defense. It can never be forgotten that 3 per cent. of Norway's population and 4 per cent. of her economic resources are found on 3 per cent. of the entire area. Sweden could have but three motives for insisting upon this condition, -(1) she desired to humble Norway; (2) she feared Norway; or (3) she wanted to weaken Norwegian defense.



VOTING IN NORWAY.
"Nei" (no), the republican
ballot against Prince
Charles.

The treaty of Karlstad, says this writer, in conclusion, "has awakened deep sorrow in Norway, and many Norwegians would have preferred to take the risks of refusal rather than submit to the crying injustice of Sweden's demands."

What Sweden Was Doing During the Crisis.

Corrupt political machinery met its Waterloo in Sweden this fall. Another editorial article in Det Ny Aarhundrede summarizes the result of the recent Swedish elections, which terminated a campaign of great interest and excitement. So much popular feeling was aroused that the Norwegian question was entirely subordinated. "The election has proved to be one of the most significant in Swedish history. A consciousness of political independence has made itself felt all over the country, driving a large part of the reactionary landed class out of office in the lower house of the Riksdag." In the upper house, this

class is still in power, owing to the franchise being based on income (see "Leading Article" in the August, 1905, number of the Review).

Since 1884, when the city of Stockholm went Conservative by political fraud, the party of reaction has been in the ascendency in the lower house also. Half a century ago, the Liberal party controlled only 30 out of 230 seats in the house. The Socialist party elected its first candidate in 1896. The elections, occurring every third year, have, however, constantly increased the Socialistic representation. By the fusion of 1900, the United Liberals elected 104 members, and the Socialists 4. Together, they now have a majority in the house, the result of the election in the lower house standing as follows (the first figures being those of 1902, the second those of 1905): Conservatives, 88, 80; Moderates, 34, 24; Liberal Fusionists, 104, 112; Socialists, 4, 14. The Liberal coalition triumphed on the issue of universal suffrage. This issue can now count 140 votes againt 90. . . . The effort of the Conservatives to arouse national passion in the matter of Norway, and thus blind the people to the real issue, has proved a complete failure. . . . The triumph of Liberalism means a democratic policy in the future in reactionary Sweden.

VICTOR RYDBERG, REFORMER, THE "DANTE OF SWEDEN."

I N order to uplift mankind socially, the work of the philosopher and poet is as much needed as that of the practical man of affairs. The poet is the bearer of high ideals, and the closer he stands to the masses of the people the more fruitful will his work be. Victor Rydberg is such a leading spirit and a captain among the Swedish people. In a recent number of the Social Tidskrift (Stockholm), Mr. E. Liljedahl points out the significance of this remarkable man as a social reformer. In picturing the "inferno of industrialism," Rydberg has indeed deserved the name of the "Dante of Sweden."

Gifted with an immense brain power, enabling him to be at once philosopher, author, historian, parliamentarian, and journalist, the secret of Rydberg's popularity lies in the fact that his writings are attractive to all classes,—to the workman, to the school, to the university, and to the library. Nine years after his death, his lectures on Roman culture are still coming from the press.

What are the prominent teachings of Rydberg as a social reformer? First of all, he taught freedom of individual conscience. It was this that inspired him in the fight against the state church, which claimed to be a higher court over good and evil than "the voice of God in the inner man." With Rydberg religion was a living reality, only needing the support of dogma and ceremonies when it lacked the inner stability. In connection with faith in the conscience

he entertained belief in reason. Realizing, however, its inability to solve all problems, he regarded the claims of the materialists as the height of human stupidity. Those fundamental



VICTOR RYDBERG, THE DANTE OF SWEDEN.

thoughts led Rydberg on to his successful battle against dogmatism and tradition, the fruit of which is his great work, "The Teaching of the

Bible as to Christ."

In his attitude on the labor question Rydberg was the uncompromising champion of the workingman, and his writings on this subject, in both prose and verse, are part of the "treasury of this class." Recognizing the mission of industry, his chief purpose was to picture that society, which was not governed by the laws of law for humanity. An enemy of the upper house of the Riksdag, owing to its slow work in social reform, the liberalism of Rydberg was, on the other hand, too genuine to be chained to socialism. He warns against the idealizing of a

future state by the working classes, proving that the ideal is beyond all human realization. In a movement of such magnitude as the labor movement, he fully realized that frictions must ensue.

The testament which Rydberg has given humanity is too great to be fully estimated at the present time. The seed planted by the author will bring forth fruit in coming generations. The idea at the bottom of the author's thoughts is eternal. Rejecting the dream of the pietist, that of eternal reward for a good earthly life, he declared that the founder of Christianity never taught any such material thing. Victor Rydberg's idea is the one of Paul the Apostle, or the social one,—we are all members of one body. The member who advances facilitates the progress of all others, while the one who falls behind retards the whole in coming to the full stature of man.

DIFFICULTIES OF GOVERNMENT RATE-MAKING.

F it is finally decided that the national government is to make and establish freight rates in this country, as provided by the legislation now before Congress, it is pertinent to ask what standard will be set up for determining a "reasonable" rate. So far, this matter has been considered mainly from the point of view of shippers who have been injured by discriminations in the past, and who now insist that rates shall be reduced, but in no case increased. On the other hand, Prof. Albert S. Bolles, writing in the North American Review for December, shows that the problem is an exceedingly complex one, and that any "quick and short-cut" method of establishing rates might easily result in creating difficulties quite as serious as those now existing. Suppose that the Government should undertake to secure to railroad investors a fair return on the capital invested; suppose further that the sum originally invested by the stockholders can be ascertained. This, however, is only a part of what the stockholders have put into the road. As Professor Bolles points out:

Many of our railroads when first completed were in the crudest condition; more capital was added; for years no dividends were made and all the net earnings were employed to improve the road, stations, bridges, remove curves, lessen grades, acquire rolling stock, and many other needful improvements. Surely all the money thus expended should be added to the capital in the Government's calculations.

Again, another railroad has made occasional dividends, 1, 2, or 3 per cent., and all the rest of the earnings have been put into betterments. How much of the earnings in such a case may be properly added to the capital account?

Mention is made of one railroad organized

several years ago which has never yet declared a dividend on its common stock. The road has been reorganized several times; numerous loans have been floated and turned into stock; preferred stock has been issued, as well as bogus stock; smaller lines have been bought and absorbed, sometimes at their cost value, but often at a much higher figure. It would be impossible even for an expert to get at the amount of capital truly invested in that enterprise.

It would be necessary for the Government, first, to decide what rate per cent. of interest on actual investment would be a reasonable remuneration to the stockholders of railroads, and, second, to determine what is the true capital of every railroad corporation on which dividends

should be paid.

IS THE LOW RATE ALWAYS "REASONABLE?"

Approaching now the question, What is a reasonable rate in a particular case? the Government would have to decide whether the lowest rate in competition is always a fair standard. Professor Bolles maintains that the bankrupt railroad, in the hands of a receiver, is generally in the most favorable condition to fix low rates. He says:

If the receiver can make enough to pay running expenses, he can set the pace and keep it up until the end. He need not try to earn interest on the corporation's loans; as for the stockholders, they are entirely out of it. Such a railroad for many years was the New York & Erie,—a menace to all solvent competitors, because it was insolvent and never expected to be any better.

The effect of a railroad's bankruptcy on its business

future is just as different from that of a private individual's bankruptcy on his business future as can be imagined. If an individual fails, the competition he had previously waged against others ceases. When a railroad fails, it is in the best possible condition to compete and underbid all rivals.

When, therefore, a shipper has demanded a lower rate because it was given by some other company, the truth often has been, as could be clearly proved if space permitted, that the unreasonable rate was that given by the lower-rate road. It is true from the shipper's point of view that he will suffer if the inequality is not corrected, and if the Government is to do anything in the way of making reasonable rates it should go much further than is proposed and prevent the making of unreasonable low ones.

Unreasonably low rates are made under three ordinary conditions,-by bankrupt railroads; by railroads possessing an inferior service, poorer cars, longer time, slower delivery, or other inferiority to their competitors; by railroads under peculiar conditions whereby a heavy cut is temporarily made to punish a rival or gain some advantage. Without going too far, it would be difficult to justify the acts of those who have declared such rates on any occasion. Shippers ought to be willing to pay a fair rate on their merchandise, for it is only a charge that they pass on to the consumers. Whatever wrong is done by the practice of things for which there is no defense, the wrong is slight compared with the excessive and disastrous competition between different companies, which, we repeat, the Government, if attempting to do anything in the way of making rates, should prevent. Surely, it is quite as clear a duty of the Government to make a reasonable rate that will secure a fair return to stockholders, and thus insure the solvency of their companies, as to insure the solvency and prosperity of their shippers. Both have equal rights in law.

NEEDLESS PARALLEL LINES.

In the case of railroads built, like the West Shore in New York State, not to be operated, but to be sold, Professor Bolles thinks it is a fair question whether any return at all ought to accrue to the stockholders, or whether, indeed, such companies have any right to exist. The New York Central was threatened with bankruptcy when the West Shore began to do business, and to prevent the sacrifice of its securities it had to buy the West Shore and increase its freight tariffs to make up for its losses. Commenting on the episode, Professor Bolles remarks:

This is the history of many of these parallel ventures; they ought not to have been built, and as independent enterprises are not entitled to the public protection or regard. Conceived in fraud, they are usually managed in the same spirit; and if solvent competing lines buy them to save themselves from ruin, are they to be blamed for making the public pay for its original dereliction of duty? The railroads that have thus been built to sell aggregate thousands of miles. What, we repeat, is a reasonable rate to charge in order to gain some return on the capital unwillingly invested under those conditions? And how does the Government propose, if regulating future rates, to guard existing companies against these unwelcome contingencies? Does it propose to suffer such adventurers to continue their work, and, when at last they are put out of the way at a heavy price, to prevent purchasers from making any advance to cover their unwilling action? If this should be the Government's policy, the ruin of the strongest railroad in the United States could be easily accomplished.

CARL SCHURZ IN '48.

NOTHING thus far published in the very entertaining "Reminiscences of a Long Life," by Carl Schurz, now running in McClure's Magazine, surpasses in interest the account of the author's university days at Bonn, which appears in the January number. Young Schurz was a member of the Burschenschaft Franconia, one of the many students' associations which had been organized at various universities after the wars of liberation early in the nineteenth century. The present narrative by Mr. Schurz covers the eventful winter of 1847-48,-a period of revolution in Europe and of special unrest in the German universities. The effect of the overturn in Paris on the German student imagination is best described by Mr. Schurz in his own words:

One morning toward the end of February, 1848, I sat quietly in my attic chamber working hard at my tragedy of Ulrich von Hutten, when suddenly a friend

rushed breathlessly into the room, exclaiming: "What, you sitting here! Do you not know what has happened?"

"No; what?"

"The French have driven away Louis Philippe and

proclaimed the Republic."

I threw down my pen-and that was the end of my Ulrich von Hutten. I never touched the manuscript again. We tore down the stairs into the street to the market square, the accustomed meeting-place for all the student societies after their midday dinner. Although it was still forenoon, the market was already crowded with young men talking excitedly. There was no shouting, no noise, only agitated conversation. What did we want there? This probably no one knew. But since the French had driven away Louis Philippe and proclaimed the Republic, something, of course, must happen here too. Some of the students had brought their rapiers along, as if it were necessary at once to make an attack or to defend ourselves. We were dominated by a vague feeling that a great outbreak of elemental forces had begun, as if an earthquake was impending of which we had felt the first shock, and we

instinctively crowded together. Thus we wandered about in numerous bands to the "Kneipe," where our restlessness, however, would not suffer us long to stay; then to other pleasure resorts, where we fell into conversation with all manner of strangers, to find in them the same confused, astonished, and expectant state of mind; then back to the market square to see what might be going on there; then again somewhere else, and so on without aim and end, until finally late in the night fatigue compelled us to find the way home.

The next morning there were the usual lectures to be attended. But how profitless! The voice of the professor sounded like a monotonous drone coming from far away. What he had to say did not seem to concern us. The pen that should have taken notes remained idle. At last we closed with a sigh the note-book and went away, impelled by a feeling that now we had something more important to do.-to devote ourselves to the affairs of the fatherland. And this we did by seeking as quickly as possible again the company of our friends, in order to discuss what had happened and what was to come. In these conversations, excited as they were, certain ideas and catchwords worked themselves to the surface which expressed more or less the feelings of the people. Now had arrived in Germany the day for the establishment of "German unity" and the founding of a great powerful national German Empire. In the first line the convocation of a national parliament. Then the demands for civil rights and liberties, free speech, free press, the right of free assem bly, equality before the law, a freely elected representation of the people with legislative power, responsibility of ministers, self-government of the communes, the right of the people to carry arms, the formation of a civic guard with self-elected officers, etc., etc.,-in short, that which was called a "constitutional form of government on a broad democratic basis."

Republican ideas were at first only sparingly expressed. But the word democracy was soon on many tongues, and many, too, thought it a matter of course that if the princes should try to withhold from the people the rights and liberties demanded force should take the place of mere petition. Of course, the regeneration of the fatherland must, if possible, be accom-



CARL SCHURZ AT NINETEEN.

plished by peaceable means, but it must be accomplished at all events.

A few days after the outbreak of this commotion I reached my nineteenth birthday. I remember to have been so entirely absorbed by what was happening that I could hardly turn my thoughts to anything else. I, like all my friends, was dominated by the feeling that at last the great opportunity had arrived for giving to the German people the liberty which was their birthright, and to the German fatherland its unity and greatness, and that it was now the first duty of every German to do and to sacrifice everything for this sacred object. We were profoundly, solemnly, in earnest.

MAYOR JOHNSON, OF CLEVELAND.

THE third election of Tom L. Johnson as mayor of Cleveland, by an increased plurality, makes especially timely the characterization of Mayor Johnson by Dr. E. W. Bemis in the December Arena. Mr. Johnson, himself a Democrat widely known as an advocate of the single tax, has achieved his victories in a strongly Republican city, where his ideas on taxation are distinctly unpopular. Dr. Bemis, who has served under him as head of the Cleveland water department, ascribes the mayor's success partly to his insistence on the destruction of special privilege, partly to his willingness to work for what is immediately attainable in municipal reform, and partly to his democratic faith in the people.

In regard to Mayor Johnson's manner of conducting his office, Dr. Bemis says:

He has broad views of public policy and a keen desire for a clean, pure government, as well as for a government that can hold its own in the contest with special privileges. No man in Ohio has done so much as he against the spoils system and in favor of administrative efficiency. Referring to the matter at a time when disgruntled spoilsmen were flercely demanding a surrender, he said of the merit system: "I believe it is good politics; but anyway, it is decent." As evidence of his broad views, one may instance also that during the past four and a half years in office he has effected great improvements in street paving and cleaning, the construction of sewers, the popularization of parks, the development of playgrounds, the efficiency of the water,

police, and fire departments, the separation of grade crossings, the management of the reformatory and of juvenile delinquents, and of many other matters.

EXECUTIVE CAPACITY COUPLED WITH KEENNESS OF PERCEPTION.

His capacity in at least two respects is extraordinary,—first, his executive capacity, an important evidence of which is his conceded ability to select strong subordinates and to impress them with somewhat of his own enthusiasm, and, second, his ability to look to the heart of the problem, whether of engineering or of political and economic science,—in other words, his power of perception. One of the most prominent civil engineers of the country, after contact with our mayor, pronounces his power of perception the greatest he has

ever met in a very wide acquaintance. Mr. Johnson has taken out many patents, some being of large value. This engineering ability joined to financial keenness greater than that hitherto shown by any of our reform leaders makes his advice in the development of municipal ownership along safe and rational lines invaluable. It has been often sought and freely given in more than one large city. His universally admitted success in giving Cleveland the purest, most efficient, government she has ever enjoyed, and one that is better than that of most, and possibly of all, the other forty cities in this country of over one hundred thousand population, has drawn to him the support of thousands of Republican voters who have not yet been converted to his taxation, public-ownership, home-rule, and direct-legislation policies.

SOME SURVIVING LIGHTHOUSES OF ANTIQUITY.

DESCRIPTION of some of the most famous lighthouses of antiquity, particularly those which survive until the present or have been restored, appears in the monthly magazine Prometheus, of Berlin, by Herr Buchwald, a well-known German civil engineer. Of course, Herr Buchwald begins with the most famous lighthouse of olden times, the granite tower on the island of Pharos, at the entrance to the harbor of Alexandria, Egypt. This structure was known as one of the Seven Wonders of the old world, and it certainly must have made a great impression on the incoming mariner. Although the descriptions in classic literature of this famous lighthouse are very meager, a German architect, Professor Adler, of Berlin. has succeeded in reconstructing on paper the famous tower,—which we reproduce here.

The first stone of the Pharos lighthouse was laid by King Ptolemeus Logi, about the year 299 B.C. The structure was completed in ten years. The architect, Sostratos of Knidos, obtained royal permission to inscribe on the tower "Sostratos of Knidos, Son of Dexiphanes, to the Gods, Guiders of the Mariner." The cost of construction of the entire tower, we are informed. amounted to 800 talents of gold, equal to probably about \$1,000,000 of our present currency. The height was 111 meters (approximately, 360 feet); and the beacon light, according to ancient tradition, was visible at a distance of thirty miles. The source of illumination is doubtful. The open shaft, with a pumping device, indicates that oil of some kind was used, and the lantern engraved on local coins eliminates the idea of the open wood fire. All through the wars of the Romans and Mohammedans, up to the middle of the seventh century, the lighthouse was kept in working order. After that, neglect and decay set in, and by the middle of the fourteenth century the famous lighthouse was little more than a ruin.

One of the other famous lighthouses of antiquity was the gigantic iron statue of Rhodes,

the principle of which has been revived in the Bartholdi Statue of Liberty in New York Harbor. This was the famous Colossus of Rhodes. It was destroyed by an earthquake, and, as an



THE PHAROS OF EGYPT.

(The famous lighthouse at the entrance to Alexandria Harbor, restored.)

oracle forbade its reconstruction, the metal of the famous statue was sold by the conquering Arabs for what would be equal to \$200,000 of

our money to-day.

Beginning with Roman ascendency in Europe, we have more detailed and accurate information about lighthouses. The Roman lighthouse was characterized chiefly by its outside staircase, leading to the top, upon which an open wood fire was always kept burning. Probably the most symmetrical of these Roman structures was the tower erected at Ostia, the seaport of Rome, at the mouth of the Tiber, and finished during the reign of the Emperor Nero. The mightiest

of Roman lighthouses, however, was the one built by the Emperor Caligula at Boulogne-sur-Mer, on the British Channel, in memory of his visit to Britannia. This tower, with the one at Corunna, on the coast of Spain, are the best preserved of ancient lighthouses. From old paintings we are able to get an idea of the original construction of the latter tower, which is the only one, excepting the Pharos, which is in any degree of preservation to-day. At the end of the eighteenth century, the Spanish Government restored this tower, and since that time it has served the shipping of the world without interruption.

RECENT COLLEGE ARCHITECTURE IN AMERICA.

THE typical features of American college and university architecture are described in a series of papers contributed to Appleton's Booklovers Magazine by Christian Brinton. In the January installment, the new buildings at Harvard and Yale are described, some excellent drawings by Vernon Howe Bailey accompanying the text. Mr. Brinton rejoices in the revival of what he concedes the true spirit of Harvard architecture,—namely, the colonial, or Georgian, style, which predominates in the most recent

creations. An example of this reversion to the primitive simplicity of Harvard architecture is the new Harvard Union, which for years was the project of Colonel Higginson and was finally carried to a conclusion by Messrs. McKim, Mead & White. The Union is a great undergraduate and graduate club, which fulfills the social needs of university life in much the same degree as does Phillips Brooks' house the religious needs.

YALE'S NEW BUILDINGS.

Unlike Harvard, Yale has practically done away with all of her old buildings, and has not cared to preserve their architectural type. The Yale of to-day, declares Mr. Brinton, is neither local nor Georgian, but displays an unconvincing compromise between the delicate classicism of Messrs. Carrère & Hastings and the somewhat matter-of-fact Collegiate Gothic of Mr. Haight. Of the old Brick Row, only one building—the famous South Middle-remains. The most satisfactory architecture of modern Yale, according to Mr. Brinton, is to be found in the bicentennial group of buildings, which owes its existence to the initiative of President Hadley. These buildings are the work of Messrs. Carrére & Hastings, of New York, and are suggestive of the Louis XVI. period. The portions thus far finished comprise the Memorial Vestibule and the Dining Hall, and the Woolsey Auditorium. Woodbridge Hall, Messrs. Howells & Stokes' new Administration Building, and Byers Memorial Hall (each of which, in a sense, belongs to the bicentennial group), are also in keeping with the general scheme as to style and construction. It would be difficult, says Mr. Brinton, to imagine anything "more logical, more captivating, or more discreetly decorative" than this scheme, which occupies an entire block.



THE MEMORIAL VESTIBULE, YALE. (Design by Carrère & Hastings.)

THE DESIGNER OF THE WORLD'S GREATEST MONUMENT.

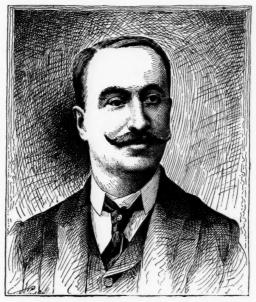
THE death of Count Giuseppe Sacconi, architect of the great monument to King Victor Emmanuel II. at Rome, has called forth from Italian reviews praise that to the stranger seems almost extravagant. The Italia Moderna (Rome) begins by saying:

Art has lost in this architect one who knew the great and profound significance of marbles, and of lines one of its most glorious devotees, and Italy one of her greatest sons. Rather, if to understand the nature, the life, and the will of the mother is to be the favorite son, the son of the spirit vast as space and deep as the sea, Italy has lost in Giuseppe Sacconi the greatest of her sons.

The Nuova Antologia (Rome), after remarking on the great projects he left uncompleted, says: "The name of Giuseppe Sacconi is, nevertheless, consecrated to fame. He is the first great artist of the third Rome."

The enormous monument, largest of our times, which in a series of terraces crowned with statues and temples fills one slope of the Capitoline hill, has been nearly twenty years in construction, and is far from completed, though the details had all been worked out before the architect's death.

The slowness of its building, however, had enabled him to better the design constantly, and this intelligent alteration to produce the most harmonious result can scarcely be done by another less imbued with the spirit of the creation. The design was one of three chosen from one



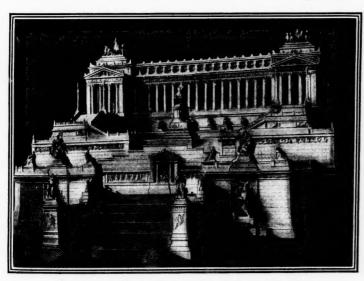
THE LATE ITALIAN ARCHITECT, GIUSEPPE SACCONI.

hundred and fifty in 1884, and was then selected by popular vote as the best of all. The *Italia Moderna* says:

If everything of our effort and of our nationality should be dispersed and disappear, the ruins of the Coliseum, of St. Peter's, and of the monument to Victor

Emmanuel,-the ruins of the works of our ancestors and of Giuseppe Sacconi,-would suffice to tell posterity that there once lived a people whose traditions of glory will never be forgotten; which was ever unique and the same through all the struggles of all the ages; which had a life of warlike glory, and grandiose and glorious traditions of art that from the dawn to the setting of that people never perished. Giuseppe Sacconi united in himself all the grandeur, the mighty forces, and the faith of the Italian spirit from antique Rome to modern Italy, from the first Rome to the third.

Among the other works of importance intrusted to Sacconi were the expiatory chapel at Monza, the tomb of King Humbert in the Pantheon, and the façade of Santa Maria degli Angeli, where Michael Angelo and Vanutelli



THE GREAT MONUMENT TO VICTOR EMMANUEL IN ROME, (Designed by Giuseppe Sacconi.)

were his predecessors in fitting a modern church into the baths of Diocletian. This façade remains uncompleted. Count Sacconi was not only an artist. For many years he had been a member of parliament, and there served art in another way, for, when matters of art were under discussion, he was always listened to as an authority who knew whereof he spoke.

A DEMOCRAT IN THE PHILIPPINES.

THE reports of those members of Congress who visited the Philippines last summer on the invitation of Secretary Taft have been awaited with no little curiosity. Especial interest attaches to the observations of the Democratic and anti-imperialist members of the party, one of whom, Senator Francis G. Newlands, of Nevada, contributes to the North American Review for December a candid statement of his views and conclusions.

Senator Newlands begins with a frank admission of his own skepticism regarding the fitness of the Filipino people for self-government and an equally frank recognition of the essential agreement between President Roosevelt and William J. Bryan, the leaders, respectively, of the Republican and Democratic parties, respecting the ultimate relations of our government to that people. At the same time, he pays a cordial tribute to Secretary Taft, "whose fixed determination to conduct the government of the Philippines in the interest of the Filipino people as a sacred trust, uncontrolled by selfish considerations, had aroused the moral sentiment and challenged the admiration of the country." In short, Senator Newlands declares his belief that the best men of both parties are now intent upon solving the Philippine question "in a manner consistent with the theory and the traditions of our government."

AN AGRICULTURAL BANK.

The Senator's observations of the Filipino people go far to confirm much that has been written concerning them by other American observers. He believes them capable of much development. Their leaders are assiduous in cultivating the popular aspirations for national independence, but naturally their conception of individual rights and liberties, in the Anglo-Saxon sense, is still obscure. Senator Newlands believes that there can be no permanent friendliness between the Filipinos and the Americans. In the meantime, however, the Philippine Commission is working out problems of good government,-if not yet a government of the people or by the people, at least a government for the people.

Senator Newlands lays much stress on the

need of an agricultural bank, resembling those of Germany and Egypt, with a capital of at least ten million dollars. While the country is in a state of "financial collapse," as described by the Manila Chamber of Commerce, we cannot expect such a bank to be organized by private capital. Senator Newlands states the case for a government bank in the following paragraphs:

An agricultural bank could loan the money necessary to introduce improved methods, particularly on the sugar plantations. It could also aid in the development of the four hundred thousand acres of land purchased from the friars, which are still on the hands of the insular government. Assisted by the Bureau of Agriculture, it could accomplish the development of the general agricultural interests of the islands upon a thoroughly modern and scientific basis. All moneys advanced could be properly secured upon the improvements made. And thus an insular agricultural bank, with a capital derived from the sale of insular bonds at 2 per cent., guaranteed by the United States, could do a business that would earn at least 6 per cent.

It will be economy for the United States to move generously and efficiently now. Economic distress may result in discontent that will cause outbreaks whose suppression will cost infinitely more than the aid at present needed. It must be remembered that the tropical islands have been languishing for years. The temperate zone has beaten the tropical zone in competition in sugar and tobacco. The outbreak of Cuba against Spain was largely due to economic distress caused by the low price of sugar; I think it likely that it has also had something to do with the contemporaneous discontent in the Philippines.

The insular revenues are now only about \$9,000,000 in gold, to which may be added \$3,000,000 in gold as the municipal revenues for Manila, and \$2,000 000 in gold as the provincial and municipal revenues outside of Manila. Fourteen million dollars in gold is the sum that is now available annually for all purposes, insular, provincial, and municipal, in a government of seven million people. When we recall that the District of Columbia, with less than three hundred thousand people, requires about nine or ten million dollars annually for municipal and District purposes, it seems amazing that the Insular Commission should have accomplished so much with so little.

THE ABOLITION OF TARIFF DUTIES.

The policy of Philippine free trade might be expected to appeal to Senator Newlands, as a Democrat, with peculiar force, but he contends that the proposed arrangement,—namely, the abolition of the American duties on Philippine products, to be followed, when the Spanish treaty expires, three years hence, by the abolition of Philippine duties upon American products,—so far as the Philippine Islands are concerned, means restricted trade, not freer trade. It would give the United States a monopoly of imports into the Philippines, but such a privilege would give Japan and China an excuse for refusing us equal trade opportunities in Manchuria and Korea. At best, an arrangement of this kind would be, so far as the Philippines are concerned, a subsidy scheme.

There are also political objections to this plan of mutual subsidy. The Philippines are now almost entirely dependent for their revenue upon customs duties. With the loss of such revenue the substitution of land and other internal taxes will be required. There is already

a vehement protest against a land tax.

Senator Newlands argues, further, that it would be particularly unwise at this time to complicate the fiscal and revenue systems of the two countries. Our policy should be to hold the Philippines entirely separate from the United States, so that when the time comes for independence there will be no difficulty in declaring the trusteeship ended and turning over the ward's property.

SUGGESTED LEGISLATION.

In place of the proposed reduction in duties, Senator Newlands suggests the following legislation, as embodying the more important reforms advocated in his article: 1. The repeal of the act extending our coast navigation laws to the Philippine Islands. These will confessedly impose a higher burden on the transportation of her exports and imports than now. Their operation has already been postponed for a time by a recent act.

2. If not too late, the repeal of the act authorizing insular aid for railroad-building by the insular guarantee of 4 per cent. interest on the \$30,000,000 of bonds, and the substitution of insular construction and ownership of the proposed railroads accomplished by means of an insular bond issue at 2 per cent., guaranteed by

the United States.

3. The authorization of insular, provincial, and municipal bonds sufficient to cover needed permanent improvements, the bonds bearing interest at 2 per cent., thus facilitating the application of a larger portion of current revenues to education, particularly of an industrial character. The enrollment of the schools should be trebled.

4. An issue of \$10,000,000 of bonds for an insular agricultural bank, the bonds to bear interest at 2 per cent. and to be guaranteed by the United States; such bank to aid the introduction of machinery and improved methods in agriculture by secured loans to the farmers.

All these bonds should run for thirty years, in which time the saving in interest should pay for them. The total, including railroads, would be about \$60,000,000,

or, without railroads, \$30,000,000.

When the time comes for final determination of the relations of the Filipinos to us, a plebiscite can be taken. If separation is then desired by either, it can be accomplished. Meanwhile, the United States can largely center its own expenditures at Subig Bay. which, cut off by the mountains from the rest of Luzon and having but few native occupants, can be made an easily defended naval, coaling, and commercial station for our navy and merchant marine. When the time comes for separation, we can easily retain Subig Bay, and thus make it a link in the chain of our naval and commercial administration.

TO-DAY'S CRUSADE AGAINST CONSUMPTION.

PROPHYLAXIS in pulmonary tuberculosis, —that is, the prevention of this white plague,—is of such vital importance that the presentation of this subject in an able article from the pen of Dr. A. P. Francine, of the University of Pennsylvania, in the Journal of the Medical Association of November 18, should attract universal attention.

It is more than probable that the average person, no matter how well informed, is not aware of the fact that consumption is the most general and fatal disease of mankind. One-tenth of all people fall victims to it. In America alone, over one hundred and ten thousand persons die of it annually.

Tuberculosis, says Dr. Francine, is more fatal to humanity than dysentery, cholera, or the plague. The ravages of war are insignificant beside it. In the great Franco-Prussian War, according to Prussian statistics,

the number of men killed and dying of wounds and disease amounted to 40,951. Twice as many die each year in Prussia of tuberculosis. In our own Civil War, there were 70,293 lives lost in battle. This is only a little over half the number dying each year from tuberculosis in this country.

But monstrous as is this showing of the direct ravages of tuberculosis, it is not all, nor even the worst half, of the picture; for you must know that tuberculosis attacks every organ and tissue of the body, and accordingly travels under many names. For instance, it is called lupus when it attacks the skin; scrofula when it attacks the glands; curvature of the spine, or spinal caries, when it attacks the vertebræ; Pott's disease, when it attacks the hip; white swelling, when it attacks the joints; and so on indefinitely. Who, then, can measure the anguish, poverty, degradation, and sin which it causes! Our hospitals for the insane and orphan asylums, our homes and hospitals for crippled children, our reformatories, prisons, and penitentiaries, are filled with the indirect results of tuberculosis.

With such facts and figures before us, there can be

little need of discussing the advisability of employing measures to suppress this universal pest. That we should adopt all such measures as lie in our power is a self-evident fact. And when I add that we can safeguard against it, and that by certain simple measures we can cut down this awful mortality, it becomes criminal negligence on our part to neglect them.

The doctor shows that the disease originates through the inspiration or ingestion of the germ—the tubercle bacillus—and that infection usually occurs through the sputum, which contains millions and millions of these bacilli. It is only dangerous when it dries and becomes pulverized and the germs are thus disseminated in the air. The drying of sputum is a source of danger, not only to those who come in contact with consumptives, but also to the invalids themselves, as they are apt to reinhale or reingest the bacteria which they themselves have expectorated and thus infect portions of the lungs or other tissues which were previously healthy.

The public measures advocated by the writer for the restriction and prevention of tuberculosis are: 1. The establishment of free sanatoria in the country for the treatment of incipient and moderately advanced cases, and also farms for convalescents. 2. The establishment of city

hospitals for the treatment of advanced cases in the wards, and of dispensaries for ambulatory cases. 3. Registration of all cases and thorough disinfection of all houses in which tuberculosis has occurred. 4. Government inspection of dairies, slaughter-houses, and herds. 5. Organization of societies for the prevention of tuberculosis.

Dr. Francine proposes the following measures for the prophylaxis of the individual: 1. The absolute control and destruction of the sputum. This can only be done if the patient expectorates into paper boxes or paper napkins, which are subsequently burned. Spittoons should not be used. 2. Care and cleanliness in the home, in respect of dust and dirt, and in disinfection of articles contaminated by use. 3. Tuberculous persons should sleep alone. The room should have no unnecessary drapery or furniture, and the windows should be kept open both night and day. Personal prophylaxis is inspired by the fact that the consumptive, if scrupulously clean, is not a source of danger even to his immediate environment. If the above directions in regard to sputum are strictly observed, association with consumptives and the care of them is ordinarily without danger.

RECENT EXPERIMENTS BY FRENCH BIOLOGISTS.

A NUMBER of papers covering a wide range of subjects and bringing out facts in experimental science of interest in themselves as well as having an important bearing on fundamental theories were presented at the recent meeting of the French Biological Society, reported in the last number of the Comptes Rendus (Paris).

Some curious discoveries in the variations of vorticella were made by M. Emmanuel Fauré-Fremiet, who by an oversight neglected a collection of the vorticellas in his laboratory so that the animalcules became exposed to conditions different from those to which they were accustomed, with the surprising result, at first sight, that one species changed into another species.

The vorticellas are ranked among microscopic animalcules possessing the least possible rudiments of anatomical structure consistent with life, and maintaining their own individuality. They resemble, in miniature, a crystal bell with a fringe of cilia constantly waving around the edge, and in place of the handle of the bell there is a delicate stalk that contracts in a spiral or stretches out at full length, according as its

owner elects to withdraw into seclusion or to swing out and explore the surroundings.

By evaporation, the level of the water in the jar containing the vorticellas was lowered so that two small pools were formed, completely isolated from each other. The jar was supposed to contain only one kind of vorticellas, but after it had been neglected in this way one pool which was supplied with animal food and was poor in oxygen was found to contain a yellowish species about two and one-half times as large as the colorless kind in the other pool where only plant food was to be had, and besides this, most of the colorless ones had encysted, drawing in cilia and spiral stalk, and inclosing themselves in an impervious case, ready for the quiescent period that they take refuge in when living becomes difficult.

As an experiment, some of the large ones were taken out and placed under the same conditions as the smaller variety. The next day they had changed, and within two days they had completely transformed into the small, colorless species, and did not delay to encyst, as their companions in the small pool were doing.

The effect of the environment in producing

this change was incontestable, and shows what a delicate balance is maintained in the organization of things, and what possibilities there are that slight differences in conditions might have produced an entirely different order of things.

Dr. Alexis Carvel and Dr. C. C. Guthrie reported the results of a curious experiment on the organs of circulation of the blood in the thyroid gland. The thyroid gland of a dog was cut free from surrounding tissue, and the artery and vein connected with it were carefully cut across very near the carotid artery and the jugular vein after the vessels had been closed with forceps to prevent bleeding. The organ was removed, and then placed back again in an inverted position, so that the end of the artery communicated with the end of the vein of the gland, while the vein was placed in circuit with the artery. Circulation of the blood was re-

established about half an hour after the organ was first dissected out, arterial blood flowing through the thyroid vein, and venous blood through the artery.

Circulation was extremely active, and fiftyeight days later, when the report of the experiment was read, the animal operated upon was

perfectly well.

Normally, the arteries pulsate, and by their contractions help to force the blood along, over the body, while the veins do not pulsate; but in this experiment the section of vein that had been placed in circuit with the artery pulsated as it did, while the artery, on the other side, communicating with the veins, stopped its natural pulsations, suggesting the idea that the specific activities of organs may not be so much the expression of their innate characteristics as a reaction to the environment in which they are placed.

WHAT IS SACCHARIN? A CAUTION.

I N connection with the growing public interest in the pure-food question, the following article, which we take from the Dutch monthly Vragens des Tijds, is of considerable present value. In a small pamphlet, published by the Anti-Sugar-Tax League of Holland, Dr. M. Greshoff has sent out a note of warning to any who may think of replacing sugar by saccharin in family use. "What is saccharin?" asks Dr. Greshoff. He then says, answering his own question:

A manufactured product obtained in various ways from coal-tar. Twenty-five years ago the German chemist, C. Fahlberg, quite accidentally discovered that a composition of tolual exists containing sulphur and nitrogen, having an extremely sweet taste, without otherwise bearing any resemblance to sugar. Several other chemical products also have a sweet taste,-e.g., glycerine,—but that discovered by Fahlberg surpassed them all in this respect, and was proved to be three hundred times as sweet as sugar. Later, it was found that, by further purification, this degree of sweetness could be raised to five hundred times that of sugar. After a thorough analytical examination of the substance, Fahlberg secured a patent for his discovery, and gave it the very inaccurate name of saccharin. It had been better, and less misleading, if he had named it pseudo-saccharin. His object may have been, very naturally, to make sure that this name should at once remind those who use the substance of genuine sugar.

In the chemical formula for saccharin, the initiated can at once read very much of the nature of this substance,—namely, that it has in reality nothing in common with sugar, and that, according to all that we know of similar substances, it cannot be considered an article of food, but rather as a poison, or, at the best, as a medicine.—

like salicylic acid, for example. Mr. Fahlberg advertised his discovery extensively and with great financial success. In those days many, even among scientists, had no clear idea of the food-value of sugar, regarding it only as a sweetening substance and a not indispensable condiment. To the influence of this opinion, in part at least, the Dutch revenue law affecting sugar owed its origin. That sugar is more than a mere condiment,—that it is warming, invigorating, and productive of adipose tissue,-had not been observed at that time. No wonder, therefore, that saccharin as a three-hundred-fold sugar was hailed with acclaim, and that it should have been honestly thought that by the discovery of this sweet stuff a great benefit had been conferred upon mankind. That there was no nutriment in the newly discovered substance was acknowledged from the first; but neither was the nutritive quality of sugar sufficiently valued at the time, and the substitution of saccharin for sugar soon became extensive.

A well-known progressive German author, Lina Morgenstern, made haste to compile a cookbook in which saccharin was prescribed in every case where sugar was used in the old-fashioned kitchen.

Other German chemists, perhaps jealous, certainly emulative, of Fahlberg's golden fame, also entered upon a search for similar sweets. Thus, Dr. Berlinerblau discovered a substance which he christened "dulcite" (whose crude form had been known as Madagascar manna), and which he brought into competition with saccharin. Then

came a third, who extracted still another sweet from coal-tar and called it "glucine." Every one extolled these new triumphs of chemistry. It was even humorously said that Fahlberg was the first to find the true answer to Samson's riddle, "What is sweeter than honey?" By a somewhat extravagant and nonsensical hyperbole, it was also said that all the sweet of prehistoric periods laid away in the coal deposits had now

been brought to light by Fahlberg.

The finding of some new saccharine substance became thus a leading aim with all manufacturing chemists. But this saccharine sensation was of but short duration in Germany. For quite soon it was felt necessary to ask, Is saccharin injurious to digestion? It could not escape notice that in many instances saccharin was productive of nausea. This led to many experiments as to the effect produced by saccharin in the intestines of men and animals. A series of investigations, instituted by scientists in France and Germany, could be cited; but it is not necessary to go so far from home. The influence of saccharin on digestion has been investigated with extreme care by the late Prof. P. C. Plugge, of the University of Groningen, a noted experimenter and independent scientist. In The Netherlands "Medical Journal" for 1888, vol. ii., pp. 569-573, he published the results of his investigations to clear up the following questions:

1. Does saccharin exert any deleterious influence on the digestive process in the mouth; in other words, does it hinder the proper solution of starchy matter by the saliva? 2. Does it prevent digestion in the stomach, the conversion of albuminous matter into peptone? 3. Does saccharin affect the digestive process in the intestines, and, particularly, does it interfere with the pancreatic fluids?

All his experiments, made with small quantities of absolutely pure saccharin, demonstrated that it considerably retards the digestive processes in the mouth, the stomach, and the intestines. Even a very small quantity of the substance he found to prevent completely the action of the saliva upon the starch in food, its effect being such as if one swallowed his bread whole. And for those suffering from the so-called sugar disease, diabetes, who had been particularly promised relief by the use of saccharin, Professor Plugge added to his report the cautionary statement that for just such patients, for whom perfect digestion is of such moment, he regarded the use of saccharin as extremely deleterious.

"Notwithstanding the many citations of the harmlessness of saccharin," wrote Professor Piugge, "no little weight should be attached to the experience of such investigators as Worms, Dujardin-Beaumetz, and others, particularly since investigations outside the faculty have abundantly shown that this substance is a real obstacle to the digestive process."

A few years ago, in 1900, Bornstein, resuming the work of Plugge, demonstrated anew that saccharin prevents the assimilation of food; and thus lessens the capacity for labor. Indeed, there is one well-established fact that fully confirms Plugge's unfavorable judgment. The sufferers from diabetes not only complain that saccharin produces nausea, but that it seriously interferes with their digestion. And this was the reason also why the French Health Department, so long as seventeen years ago, expressed a very unfavorable opinion of this substance, there called sucre de homille, as a substitute for sugar.

There is, however, another and still more serious question,—viz., Is saccharin a poison?

Many answer this in the negative, and they appeal, first, to the fact that in practice saccharin poisoning is seldom or never heard of; and, secondly, to the fact that in experiments with animals only there is a fatal effect observed when an unusually large quantity of this substance is administered.

That one cannot be poisoned with saccharin, as with Prussic acid, is, of course, undeniable. But a weaker poison may, nevertheless, be very injurious. On one occasion, in 1902, an entire family in the city of Prague was made ill from the immoderate use of saccharin, and one of them even lost his life thus. Nor should it be forgotten that in the German Empire safeguards against the use of saccharin were very early established by the passage of the Shisstoff Gesetz, a law regulating the sale of sweets, and that in many other countries the sale of this article has been placed under strong restrictions, so that the likelihood of poisoning by the consumption at once of large quantities of it is made well-nigh impossible.

The first intimation of poisoning by saccharin occurs in the form of a severe diarrhœa.

Those who may still have some doubts on this matter are advised to make the following simple experiment: Put some live fish into a solution of saccharin. They will speedily show great restlessness, change color, and lose the sense of direction in swimming; in one word, they are poisoned. In a sugar solution, nothing of the sort would be observed. Now, just as in the fish the saccharin solution drenches the fine webs of the breathing organs, the gills, and obstructs their power of action, so even a weak solution of saccharin floods the delicate organs of the human body and interferes with their function. For one of the characteristics of saccharin is that it circulates unchanged through the entire body, even down to the kidneys. And the likelihood that the tender organs may ultimately be seriously injured by saccharin is not the least reason for the exercise of care and prudence in the use of it. Prof. H. W. Wiley, who has made a special study of substances used as a means for the sweetening and preserving of articles of food, advises strongly against this use of saccharin, and this mainly because of its effect upon the kidneys.

FRANKLIN THE CITIZEN.

STRANGELY enough, the approaching bicentennial anniversary of Franklin's birth (January 17, 1906) has succeeded in calling out only three or four articles in the January magazines. The subject is passed over even by those periodicals that commonly publish historical material. There is, however, a very readable paper on Franklin as the model of old-fashioned American citizenship in the American Illustrated (formerly Leslie's). The writer, Mr. George W. Alger, regrets that the school histories have not inspired in the American youth the reverence for Franklin's character that is felt for other Revolutionary heroes. Franklin was an old man when the Declaration of Independence was signed; he was not a fighter; his services in financing the war are not explained to the schoolboy, and hence are not understood or appreciated.

Yet the importance of the Franklin type of citizenship is well brought out in Mr. Alger's article. As he truly remarks, the country has never lacked men who would die for it. It is in danger to-day from its lack of men willing to do something for it while they are alive. "The newspapers and magazines," he says, "are full of the crooked doings of men who are to-day undermining the foundations of a government for which, in times of war, they would carry a gun."

Mr. Alger finds Franklin interesting as the "original American business man in public life." He was a shrewd and successful man of affairs. He made money and saved it. Yet he was known in European scientific circles long before the Revolution, and he served in many important offices.

INTEGRITY IN PUBLIC LIFE.

It should be borne in mind that it was while he was actively and laboriously engaged in a pursuit which he loved, that of making money, he found time to perform those many acts of wise citizenship which form the substantial foundation of his later career as a statesman. He could do successful business and still find time for public service.

He was particular about the way of doing that business, moreover. He was particular about the way in which he made his money. He was not of that too familiar type of big business men who square extor-

tion and oppression by philanthropy. He took no rebates. When he first started his newspaper in Philadelphia, his rival was Bradford, who in addition to publishing a paper was postmaster-general of the colonies. Bradford used his authority as postmaster-general to practically exclude Franklin's papers from the mail by forbidding the post riders to carry them. Franklin shortly after succeeded Bradford as postmaster-general. Here was the opportunity to build a monopoly and crush his old rival. But the thought never seems to have entered his head that the newspaper business of the colonies belonged to him. He says of Bradford in his attempt to crush Franklin's newspaper: "I thought so meanly of him for it that when I afterward came into his situation I took care never to imitate him."

A STRANGER TO "RAKE-OFFS."

The following unconscious example of the simple-mindedness which characterized Frank lin's honesty is summarized from his autobiography:

When Braddock came over in the French and Indian War with his British regulars, and before he met the historic disaster which cost him his life, he had great difficulty in getting horses and wagons to pull ordnance and carry camp supplies, and Franklin set about helping him to get the necessary transportation. The Pennsylvania farmers were suspicious. They did not know Braddock, they did not know Franklin, and insisted on his bond for the performance of Braddock's promises. There was absolutely no reason why Franklin should give it, for he was in no sense an army contractor, but was simply trying to be of practical help in an emergency in the war. But he gave his personal bond and advanced considerable sums from his own funds to procure the wagons. As everybody knows, Braddock was defeated and the wagons and horses were lost. The farmers came back to Franklin, and he nearly had to pay twenty thousand pounds, which would have ruined him, but a commission was finally created to adjust and pay the claims. As for the cash advances he had made, Braddock's successor intimated that Franklin had probably made enough "rake-off" on the transportation contracts so that he could stand the loss of his advances, and he laughed incredulously at him when the honest printer declared indignantly that he had not pocketed a farthing. "I have since learned," says Franklin in his autobiography, "that immense fortunes are often made in such employments." What homespun simplicity! How curiously, in an age of directors, do these words sound! How remote and foreign seems the honest, wise old man's innocence of "graft!"

HIS SERVICES AT HOME AND ABROAD.

At the time of the Revolution no other American was able to accomplish a tenth part as much for the colonies abroad. Though France was in financial straits herself, Franklin obtained loans which kept the Continental army in the field. His diplomacy finally secured the recognition by France of American Independence, sixteen men-of-war, 4,000 men, and \$5,000,000, nearly \$2,000,000 of which was a free gift. But these great services, important as they were

at that critical juncture, should not cause us to overlook the more modest efforts that Franklin was making all through his long life to improve the condition of his fellows. Perhaps no other American of his day had to do with the founding of so many useful and worthy public institutions. The University of Pennsylvania, the Philosophical Society, and the Philadelphia Library are only a few out of many instances. As Mr. Alger puts it, the permanent monuments which Franklin left were created, not by gifts of his money, but by gifts of himself.

HOW SPONGES ARE GATHERED.

STRIKING picture of the perils undergone A by those who gather sponges is afforded by Mr. C. W. Furlong's article in a recent Harper's on the Greek sponge divers of Tripoli. We are told that "out of the seven hundred scaphanders (divers equipped with helmet and tube) working on this coast, from sixty to a hundred die every year, and sooner or later hardly a man escapes from diver's paralysis." The greatest danger is in the rapid ascent, producing sudden relief of pressure. A partially paralyzed diver recovers the use of his limbs again on descending. These divers work for six months in the year, from April to October, from sunrise to sunset, generally on a rough sea and under the scorching rays of an African sun. During the winter months, they spend most of their time ashore in their island homes. The experienced diver will receive from \$200 to \$600. To make their profits or to pay their way, "the captains are obliged to treat the divers with great severity, and hire overseers who devise most brutal means of forcing them to fish at any cost." The hot air from the desert, heated by friction in the air-pumps, ought to be cooled with water, but is frequently pumped down at an excessively high temperature. If his haul be unsatisfactory, the diver is sent down and kept down, in spite of his protests. The writer thus describes the descent of a diver, Pteroudiz:

I followed his sinking form, as the last glint of his shining helmet, radiating shafts of refracted light in all directions, disappeared into the oblivion of the mysterious depths, where every ten meters equaled another atmospheric pressure. Crawling along the bottom, taking care not to wrench the weights from his feet, which would cause him to turn head downward, he searched among the wonders and beauties of the semitropical sea garden, and when he found a colony of the reddish-brown Tripoli sponge, signaled to the overseer, whereupon the spot was buoyed. Discarding, among others, the few black and worthless male sponges, he selected only the marketable ones, the best of which he gathered from the rocks. Sometimes the shadowy form of a huge shark or dogfish glided dangerously near him.

Suddenly Pteroudiz made his appearance at the surface, the water rolling off his helmet and shoulders as from some great amphibious creature; and the bag of dark, heavy sponges, dripping and streaming with ooze and sea water, was hauled aboard.

So much for the divers. As for the sponges:

As soon as the sponges are brought aboard they are thrown in heaps on deck near the scuppers, where the barefooted sailors tramp and work out the ooze; then, strung on lines, they are soused over the side, and trail overboard some ten hours during the night. To break and separate from them shellfish and other parasites, they are beaten with heavy sticks on deck or on the reef rocks off Tripoli; and after being well soaked in the sea again, many are bleached by being immersed in a tub of water containing a certain solution of oxalic acid, from which they emerge a yellowish color, care having been taken to avoid burning them.



BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

Studies of Living Personalities. - President Roosevelt's "outdoor" side is the subject of an interesting article by Henry Beach Needham in the January number of McClure's. Several photographs taken during the President's bear hunt in Colorado, last spring, and later in the year at his Oyster Bay home, accompany the article. There is also an excellent photograph of the President with John Muir, the naturalist and writer, taken on Glacier Point of the Yosemite Valley, in the summer of 1903.-The subject of Mr. Steffens' contribution to this number of McClure's is Mayor Mark Fagan, of Jersey City. The story of this "reform" mayor as told by Mr. Steffens is a marked contrast to some of the narratives of municipal misrule which earlier papers in this same series have included .- A capital account of District Attorney Jerome's remarkable campaign in New York is given by Robert Adamson in Pearson's. Readers outside of New York City may gain from Mr. Adamson's sketch and the pictures accompanying it an excellent idea of the methods employed in that unique campaign.—In Munsey's, there is an appreciation of the veteran journalist, Henry Watterson, of the Louisville Courier-Journal, by E. J. Edwards.-Mrs. Mary Crawford Fraser, the wife of the late British minister to Japan, contributes to the World's Work a series of well-informed sketches of eminent Japanese leaders in the transition period. Of the older group, Marquis Ito, Count Okuma, Count Inouyé, and Yamagata are described; and, of the younger men, Saionji.-In Munsey's, Mr. R. H. Titherington writes about Lord Curzon of Kedleston, and Fritz Cunliffe-Owen tells what is known of Prince Eitel Fritz, the second of Emperor William's sons, and Princess Charlotte of Oldenburg, whom he is soon to marry.-In the American Magazine (formerly Leslie's), Mr. Henry Kitchell Webster tells the story of Miss Marie Hall, who five years ago was fiddling in the streets of Bristol for the day's food and to-day is rated as perhaps the most popular of English violinists.-Mr. W. T. Stead relates, in the Cosmopolitan, the methods employed by the Countess Tolstoi to keep her husband from giving away all his property.-"A Study in Self-Analysis," by Bernard Shaw, appears in the Mctropolitan, prefaced by an editorial note predicting that the article will "surprise most readers who have seriously questioned the Irishman's possession of a soul."

Historical Characters in the New Year's Numbers.—Benjamin Franklin, the bicentennial anniversary of whose birth is to be observed on January 17, 1906, is the subject of an article in the American Illustrated, from which we quote in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month." There is also in the Century for this month a paper on "Franklin in France," written by the late Secretary Hay. It is an interesting estimate of the influence which Franklin was able to exert in France, and of the hold that he obtained on the popular imagination. In Lippincott's,

Emma Repplier writes entertainingly on "Franklin's Trials as a Benefactor."-"The Story of Paul Jones," by Alfred Henry Lewis, is continued in the January Cosmopolitan.-The second installment of "Lincoln the Lawyer," by Frederick Trevor Hill, appears in the January Century. There is a full account of Lincoln's early endeavors as a law student, his admission to the bar, his first partnership, and a number of his early cases and competitors, together with some description of the primitive bench and bar of Illinois in the days of Lincoln's youth.—In the current installment of George Bancroft's letters, which are appearing in Scribner's, we reach the culmination of his career, when he became minister to Germany. The letters show his intimacy with the Emperor, Bismarck, Moltke, and other great men during the Franco-German War period.

Commercial and Industrial Progress.-Mr. Charles Edward Russell's article, entitled "Germanizing the World," in the January Cosmopolitan ought to open the eyes of those insular Americans who have persistently refused to believe that Germany really has designs on the commercial dominance of the world. He shows how much has been accomplished within the past few years in the pushing of German trade and shipping interests in almost every part of the globe. Any one can remember, for instance, when the German flag was rarely seen in New York Harbor, but now the German ships are more numerous there than those of any other nation. As Mr. Russell puts it, the Germans have gone into Southampton and taken the cream of the Eastern trade from under the very eyes of the British. Mr. Russell finds that the whole scheme of German propaganda is wisely administered, and that the growth of socialism is the only cloud on the German horizon at the present time.-Apropos of the discussion of the railroad-rate question in Congress, Mr. Samuel Spencer, the president of the Southern Railway, contributes to the Century a well-considered paper explaining how railroad rates are influenced by industrial, geographical, and weather conditions.-In McClure's Magazine, Mr. Ray Stannard Baker gives the results of his recent investigation of the private-car interests and the beef trust .- "Working an Oil Lease" is the subject of an article in Appleton's Booklovers Magazine, by Alden A. Knipe, who describes in detail the Pennsylvania oil fields as they are operated at the present time.-Two most important railroad achievements in the West of recent years are described, respectively, in the Century and the World's Work. In the former magazine, the Lucin cut-off across the Great Salt Lake on an embankment and trestle, a remarkable engineering feat, is explained in detail by Oscar King Davis. Under the title "Swinging the March of the Empire Southwestward," in the World's Work, Mr. French Strother gives an account of the building of Senator Clark's railroad from Salt Lake City to Los Angeles.-Mr. George H. Guy summarizes in the Cosmopolitun some of the latest achievements and discoveries in the electrical field.

Nature Notes.—Mr. Julian A. Dimock tells in the American Illustrated a wonderful tale of what he calls "Crocodiling with a Camera." It seems that Mr. Dimock has been for years accustomed to take photographs of crocodiles in their native element and in all possible positions, and in support of his assertions a number of exceedingly good photographs are reproduced in connection with his article. By harpooning and lassoing the crocodiles, Mr. Dimock is able to photograph them at very close range. Mr. Dimock always liberates his crocodiles taken in this way, and

uses neither gun nor rifle.—Mr. Ernest Thompson Seton contributes to Scribner's a paper on "The Wapiti and His Antlers," illustrated with his own drawings.—In the Metropolitan Magazine, Mr. Elwin R. Sanborn, one of the staff of the New York Zoölogical Park, describes several of the orangs and chimpanzees belonging to that institution. Accompanying his article are several photographs of these Zoölogical Park monkeys seated at the dinner-table and in other attitudes approaching the human.—Dr. Henry C. McCook's paper in the January Harper's is devoted entirely to the netmaking caddis-worm, a species of which one rarely hears, but which furnishes some remarkable illustrations of the architectural instinct.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

Reform in the Congo.—In reviewing the report on the Congo State for the Contemporary Review (London), Mr. Herbert Samuel, M.P., puts little hope of improvement in the new system of forced labor, "to be established and administered by the same men who have for so long defended and profited by the old." He sees nothing for it but the transfer of the Congo from King Leopold's personal control to that of the Belgian parliament, with renewed and effective guarantees to the powers of humane government and free trade. He suggests that the demand should be renewed that the Hague tribunal should decide whether the concessions, at the bottom of the mischief, can be legally maintained under the terms of the Berlin Act.

A French Wordsworth.—André Turquet contribntes to the Fortnightly Review (London) for December an appreciation of René Bazin. The modern sympathy with nature, of which Wordsworth's poetry is the central and elementary expression, has, says the writer, been surpassed by a few of his unconscious disciples, and all are French. The novelist, René Bazin, is selected as chief Wordsworthian of them all. The sketch thus concludes: "Such is the figure of this delicate and original writer, the friend of the poor and also 'a fine gentleman,' as Thackeray would say, a realist much bolder than might at first be supposed, lying hidden under a garment of refined sentiments, a wonderful landscape painter, as clear a delineator of human life, aiming always at an absolute sincerity of feeling and diction, an idealist in the best sense of the word, always true to himself, -in short, an Angevin Wordsworth, with the added sense of deep humor."

The German Navy League.-This organization is described in the National Review (London) for December in a paper which shows that when Germans take to agitation they do it with a thoroughness that puts our own best efforts to shame. Founded as late as 1898, the league has now more than four thousand local branches in Germany. Persons of highest title and greatest official influence are roped in to attract all classes beneath them into some sort of social touch. Its membership now numbers 810,000, "the largest voluntary association for patriotic purposes in the world." Its annual income amounts to about \$250,000. Its monthly journal, Die Flotte, has a circulation of 320,000, more than twice the daily circulation of the four leading journals of Germany. It has presented the nation with a small gunboat. It distributes, gratis,

an enormous quantity of printed matter to attract seamen and naval officers from the inland population. It has also taken from inland districts nearly five thousand children to the sea, accompanied by teachers, and shown them over the warships. The results are immense enthusiasm, in which all parties unite, not excepting the Social Democrats, a national antagonism to great Britain, and the passing of heavy navy bills.

Why the French Birth Rate Declines.—Mr. Charles Dawbarn deals, in the Nineteenth Century (London) for December, with the depopulation question in France, and he quotes the report of the Extra-Parliamentary Commission on the subject, appointed in January, 1902. The stationary character of French population has been shown to be not due to physiological causes. There is no proof of unfruitfulness in the race. The restriction is voluntary, and enforced by social opinion. The root motive is love of economy. Where the population is provident, the families are small; where improvident, they are large. The writer thinks that France has but arrived in advance at a point to which all the civilized states are surely traveling. One of the results is the pacific temper of the French people.

Newspapers of the World.-In a recent number of the Revue Hebdomadaire (Paris) there appeared a statistical paragraph on the newspaper press of the world. It follows: "Among European countries, Germany stands at the head with 5,500 newspapers, of which 800 are dailies. England occupies second place with 3,000—809 dailies. France has 2,819, of which, however, only one-quarter appear daily or two or three times a week. Italy publishes 1,400 newspapers, followed in their order by Austria-Hungary, Spain, Russia, Greece, and Switzerland. The total number of newspapers published in Europe is about 20,000. In Asia, not less than 3,000 newspapers appear periodically, the largest number in Japan and the British Indies. Africa has the smallest number of newspapers, only 200 dailies being published in the whole continent, of which 30 are published in Egypt, the balance in the European colonies. In America, the newspaper business is very extensive. In the United States, 12,500 newspapers are published, of which 1,000 are dailies; 120 published by negroes. Australia has but few newspapers." Commenting on this paragraph, the editor of the Daily Consular and Trade Reports remarks: "If the newspaper statistics given in the Revue Hebdomadaire are as incorrect for the remainder of the world

as they are for the United States, it would be better had the compilation never been published. Bearing in mind that the Hebdomadaire informs the world that only 12,500 newspapers are published in the United States, of which number only 1,000 are dailies, the following statistics compiled in the Bureau of Manufactures from Rowell's American Newspaper Directory for 1903 will show the erroneous statistics given out by the French journal: 'Newspapers published in the United States at the close of 1903: Weeklies, 14,455; semi-weeklies, 499; tri-weeklies, 54; dailies, 2,215; total newspapers, 17,223. Periodicals published in the United States at the close of 1903: Monthlies, 2,710; all other periodicals, 552; total periodicals, 3,262; total newspapers and periodicals, 20,485.' Assuming that the Hebdomadaire's statistics for Europe are correct, it will be seen that the daily and weekly newspapers published in the United States are in number nearly equal to the dailies and weeklies published in all Europe."

The Action of Radium on Wool and Silk .-Two English scientists whose names are not given have been experimenting to find out what effect radium has on vegetable and animal textiles, on silk and cotton in particular. The Illustration (Paris) says that a certain number of threads were exposed to the action of radium several days, and every day a thread was taken away to see what progress had been made by the rays and what wear had been made in the resistance of the threads. The experiment proved that the strength of the threads visibly diminished. Before the experiment the resisting force of the silk fibers was 78 grams,-that is to say, the threads did not break until they had supported the weight of 78 grams. Under the action of radium the resistance diminished about four grams a day. The cotton fibers lost their strength, but they lost more rapidly during the trial of the first days. Their initial resistance was 370 grams; at first, the loss of strength was 60 grams per day. After a few days the loss was less. When the fibers were wet at the time of their subjection to the rays, they augmented in resisting power, but that effect was temporary. No one need hope to strengthen threads by wetting them and then subjecting them to radium.

Belgium's Experiment with "Municipal Dwellings."-Writing in Social Tidskrift (Stockholm), G. H. von Koch reviews the scheme of the Belgian Government for the erection and acquisition of workmen's dwellings, exhibited at the Liège Exposition last summer. Not less than two hundred and fifty building firms took part in this remarkable exhibition. By the law enacted in 1887, the acquisition of property was favored in such a way that workmen, acquiring their own houses, should enjoy special tax privileges. In order to facilitate matters, brokers' associations, also called Committees on Houses, were established in the thickly populated districts of larger cities, and the great Municipal Title & Guarantee Company was entitled to use some of its funds for loans to workingmen. The significance of these measures is obvious in the fact that up to the 31st of May, 1905, not less than sixty-five millions of francs were loaned, this money being used for the construction of thirty-one thousand workmen's dwelling-houses. The activity of the brokers' associations, numbering one hundred and sixty-eight in various places, in bringing about such an excellent result is profusely illustrated in this article by maps

and plans. The Belgian Government has also taken the bold step of arranging an exhibition of actual dwellinghouses. For this purpose the sum of fifteen thousand francs has been offered in prizes. The result of this offer has been the little village of sample nouses erected on the heights of Cointe, above Liège. Seventeen different contracting companies and eight industrial entrepreneurs competed for the three prizes. Each house was to represent a one-family dwelling, with adjoining garden, the whole designed to demonstrate the most economical use of a small lot. Half the number of residences were provided with furniture, for the best of which several prizes were announced. In studying the arrangement of rooms and their furnishing, cheapness and sanitation were the salient features to be considered. While every house was provided with a cellar, some lacked the attic. Brick was used throughout in construction, but a varied application of mortar in different colors gave a pleasant appearance to the houses. As to cost of construction, in no case did it exceed 4,500 francs (\$900). Supposing the lot to be worth 1,000 francs, the Belgian workingman could acquire his own house on the following conditions from the Municipal Title & Guarantee Company: First, without life insurance, 29 or 37 francs per month, to be paid according to situation and convenience of the house, for twenty-five years. Secondly, with life insurance, 39 or 45 francs per month. In this case the house becomes the property of the family at the death of the insured. Not less than 80 per cent. of all contracts have been issued with life insurance.

The Automobiling of the Near Future.-The Illustration (Paris) says that it appears probable to Parisians that automobilism is about to enter a new era. Up to this time, the only sensational manifestations of any importance in the annals of mechanical auto-locomotion have been long-distance races,-for example, Paris-Bordeaux, Paris, Paris-Marseilles, Paris, Paris-Amsterdam, Paris-Dieppe, Paris-Madrid, Paris-Vienna, the circuits of Ardennes, Brescia, etc., and speed races to Nice, Deauville, Ostende, Chanteloup, Gaillon Laffrey, Chateau-Thierry, Mont Ventoux, etc. And for such trials special vehicles were constructed, more and more monstrous year by year, as the increase of speed was demanded. We may well ask where the fury of the builders and the mad passion of the public for experiments often tragic and always bordering on folly will end. But the time is coming when that question will be answered. The Automobile Club of France is now divided into two camps,—(1) partisans of one-hundred-miles-an-hour races; (2) partisans of long tours. The partisans of one-hundred-mile races are builders of automobiles who have not yet taken a prize for the best construction, and drivers (called "chauffeurs") who think that one hundred and fifty miles or two hundred miles an hour do not amount to much; who say that it ought to be known just what the limit in speed is. The public, too, believes that there must be a limit that should not be exceeded. Men who ride in automobiles would like to be sure how fast it is safe to ride; in other words, they want to know how fast they can ride without blowing up the machine, - not the special wagon built for special trials of endurance demanded by speed races, but the wagon that the public in general may consider safe to ride in. The drivers pretend that the only way to teach the public is to experiment by racing great races severely organized and controlled.

This opinion is gaining ground among the people who so far have escaped serious accidents, and in obedience to the popular demand the Automobile Club of France has set a committee to work studying a plan of races for the year 1906, and the coming races are expected to open the eyes of the people who have known nothing more astonishing than the races of the past. Were there any common sense left on earth we should not have automobile races the coming year. We should have just one decisive race. Given a serious and decisive trial of that kind, the public would gain what the automobile-builders would lose.

Underground Agriculture at Paris.—The Hojas Selectas (Barcelona) contains an interesting illustrated article on mushroom culture in the suburbs of Paris. Some eighty growers occupy two hundred and fifty extensive abandoned limestone and gypsum quarries (similar to those used as catacombs), and the wooden towers for ventilation are prominent features of the suburban landscape. More than a thousand employees are required. The product is valued at over a million dollars a year. The fungi are raised in long ridges of horse manure, covered with a prepared soil of calcareous earth and sand, and require careful attention as to ventilation, heat, and humidity for about a month before the long harvest begins.

Some Statistics of Cholera Vaccination.—The Illustration (Paris), in an article on the steps to be taken to escape cholera, says: " . . . Measures of hygiene, of cleanliness, of disinfection, have never sufficed to stop an epidemic of any violence. Moreover, no infectious disease is on the road to diminution except smallpox. Smallpox is the only one against which we have a preventive treatment, vaccination. We have a curative vaccine for other diseases, but this vaccine does not lessen the number of the cases. See, for example, what takes place in the case of diphtheria. They treat it pretty well now; but if they reduce the number of the deaths, they do not reduce the number of the cases. They lessen the proportion of infectiousdisease cases only where they possess the preventive vaccine. This vaccine exists for cholera. For over ten years they have been vaccinating against cholera in India, and with great success. The thing has become customary, and the method is so well rooted that they no longer take the trouble to make known its benefits. any more than in the case of vaccination in Europe. As for the degree of efficacy of the anti-cholera vaccination invented by M. M. Haffkine, a former assistant at the Pasteur Institute, it appears very plainly from a few statistics taken in India, at Degubaar, Karkuri, and Bilaspur. Here are the figures for Degubaar: Cases of Cholera.-Not vaccinated, 254, 12. Vaccinated, 407, 5. Deaths.-Not vaccinated, 10. Vaccinated, 0. At Karkuri: Cases of Cholera.-Not vaccinated, 198, 15. Vaccinated, 443, 3. Deaths.-Not vaccinated, 9. Vaccinated, 1. At Bilaspur: Cases of Cholera .- Not vaccinated, 100. Vaccinated, 150. Deaths.—Not vaccinated, 5. Vaccinated, 1. In all the preceding cases, vaccinated and not vaccinated were living in the same conditions, engaged in the same work, and belonging to the same social class. Haffkine's vaccine is the only vaccine that we possess against cholera. It is, however, excellent, as the preceding figures show. The

duration of the immunity that it confers extends from six months to a year. But it is not curative; it is of no use to inject it into a cholera patient. It is a preventive remedy, designed for rendering non-cholera subjects immune to infection.

The Spanish Elections.-Commenting on the recent Spanish elections for the Cortes, Det Ny Aarhundrede, of Copenhagen, points out that the new Liberal cabinet of Montero Rios inaugurated its government by the customary dissolution of the parliament. Every new Spanish cabinet obtains a considerable majority by new elections, as the results in numerous districts are controlled by the government. It seems, however, as if this influencing of the ballot is decreasing in the degree as the opinion of the people is getting a hold on the dealing with public issues. The result of the recent elections in Spain was the election of 250 Liberals, while the parties of the opposition carried an aggregate number of 170 seats in parliament, about 100 of which belong to the Conservative party. The Republicans hold in the present, as well as in the previous house, 30 seats; in some country districts they gained four new members, but lost the same number of seats in Madrid by a slight minority. The followers of Don Carlos, the old pretender to the Spanish crown, have only three seats left at their disposition, and the Socialists have, in spite of all their efforts, not yet been able to elect a single candidate.

The General Commerce of Persia During 1903-04.-The general commerce of the Persian Empire during the year Tavichgan 11 (from March 20, 1903, to March 20, 1904) rose to a total of 639,810,662 krans, or, approximately, \$53,744,095 (a kran is about 8.4 cents). Of this total, the importations represent \$32,343,237, and the exportations amounted to about \$21,401,058. The general commerce of the preceding year (1902-03) rose to a total of \$38,028,367. So the increase was \$15,-715,728 (or $39\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., $20\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. being an increase in importations and 19 per cent. an increase in exportations). A financier, comments the Revue Diplomatique (Paris), will understand by these figures that, while the general commerce is naturally increasing, the condition of the country is not improved. The commercial situation is bad enough. Business is slow, and complaints are heard on all sides concerning customs duties, the customhouse, and the laws which took effect February 14, 1903, raising the taxes on all the important articles of commerce. If we glance at the part played by the powers in commercial relations with Persia, we see that all of the powers rank about as they did the preceding years. Russia is favored by her geographical situation. She heads the list, with a total figure of \$15,517,719 importations. England, also favored by her position in the Indies, to the south of the Persian Empire, stands second, with \$6,785,705. These two powers represent 811/4 per cent. of the total annual importation. France follows Russia and England, but at long distance from them. Her importations amount to about \$1,848,000 (51/2 per cent. of the total importation). In 1902-03, the French importations were \$1,428,000. So France has made a little progress-or, rather, she has retrieved this last year very nearly the figure that she reached in 1901-02. The other importing countries, taken all together, show about their usual figure.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND HISTORICAL MEMOIRS.

A WORK of unusual historic and personal interest is the collected memoirs of the late Dr. Thomas W. Evans, which Appletons have just published under the title "The Second French Empire," sub-heading it "Napoleon III., the Empress Eugénie, and the Prince Imperial." Dr. Evans was the "American deutist" in Paris from 1847 until after the Commune. His long and close attachment to Napoleon III. and his family, and the confidential relations he maintained with other

sovereigns and princely houses of Europe, afforded him unusual opportunities for observing the political ideas and institutions in France and the conditions and causes that determined the fall of the second French Empire as seen from within. The Empress Eugénie was entertained by Dr. Evans during her flight from Paris. The Emperor himself was a close friend of the American doctor. Just before his death (in 1896), Dr. Evans began to write his memoirs and to gather to-



DR. THOMAS W. EVANS.

gether into coherent form a sketch of the military and political situation in France and Germany preceding the war, including the escape of the Empress from Paris,—the latter a narrative which had remained unpublished for some twelve years, because of a feeling of delicacy on the part of the writer. Dr. Evans died before his task had been completed, and the present volume has been edited by Edward A. Crane, M.D., one of his executors. While making no pretensions to literary ability, Dr. Evans undoubtedly possessed the gift of saying what he had to say with sincerity and directness. The human personal interest in the notes and letters more than



POULTNEY BIGELOW.

atone for the lack of literary form, — a form which even the painstaking work of Dr. Crane has not been able to supply.

The fourth and last volume of Mr. Poultney Bigelow's "History of the German Struggle for Liberty," illustrated with portraits, has been published by Harpers. This volume treats of the absorbingly interesting Sturm und Drang period, the revolution of 1848. Mr.

Bigelow's study and training have made him peculiarly well fitted to picture for us this period of German history, which, although so near the present day, is so little known. He has fortified his narrative with copious quotations, notes, and bibliographical references. The revolutions of Frankfort, Berlin, Vienna, and Munich are graphically depicted, and we can see the tremendous growth of the influence of the laboring classes and of socialistic doctrines in Germany under the guidance of Engels and Marx.

The memoirs, observations, reminiscences, and conclusions of the late Col. Charles Denby have been published by L. C. Page & Co. under the title "China and Her People." This work is in two volumes, and is profusely illustrated with half-tone engravings, charts, and maps. Colonel Denby's record in our diplomatic service-thirteen successive years as American minister to China-is unique. Through three administrations and part of a fourth he remained at the Chinese capital, conducting our relations with the Chinese Government with dignity and skill. The first volume deals generally with the social life of China and the Chinese people, and the second with the political phases of Chinese life. Chapters on the Chino-Japanese War and the Russo-Japanese War have been added by the editor of the work, which was ready for publication shortly after Colonel Denby's death. Especially interesting

and important are the late minister's own words on the Boxer rebellion and the missionary question.

While it may not be true that in the 634 pages of his "History of Egypt" (Scribners) Dr. James Henry Breasted says the last word on the subject, yet it would seem safe to assert that he has resaid all previous words in a coherent, interesting way. Dr. Breasted, who is professor of Egyptology and Oriental history in the University of Chicago and director



COL. CHARLES DENBY.

of the Haskell Oriental Museum, has spent years in Egypt itself and in French and German archæological collections preparing for this work. The volume, which covers the period from the earliest times to the Persian conquest, is profusely illustrated, and provided with an excellent index and chronological tables. As to his method of study, Professor Breasted says in the preface that he went to the original documents, "irrespective of other studies and results, and it was in almost all cases only after such unbiased study that any older translation or account of a document was consulted."

The John C. Winston Company has brought out

an English translation, very handsomely bound and illustrated, of Gautier's "Russia," with supplementary material by several other distinguished French travelers. To this they have added, to make a two-volume book, a chapter upon the struggle of Russia for supremacy in the far East, by Florence M. Tyson, bringing the history down to the middle of the present year. Gautier's "Russia" will be remembered as one of a series of fascinating travel stories, written in the best vein of the author of "Italy," "Constantinople," and "The Orient." The photogravures illustrating the book are unusually well done.

The first complete history of the Russo-Japanese War, so far as we are aware, is the substantial volume entitled "The War in the Far East," by the military correspondent of the London Times.



THE ALABASTER STATUE OF AMENDARIS, SISTER OF PIAN-KHI (CAIRO MUSEUM).

Illustration (reduced) from Breasted's "History of Egypt."

This work, which has been brought out in New York by E. P. Dutton, is embellished with nine full-page photogravure illustrations and many maps and plans. There is an introduction, written especially for the volume, and an appendix which gives the chronology of the war and the make-up of both Japanese and Russian forces engaged. The chapters are not signed, and the writer declares that, while they were written "from day to day, preserving the contemporary color, warmth, and partisanship," yet they will, he hopes, serve as a preliminary study of the campaign.

A translation from the German of Dr. Gustav Karpeles' lectures on Judaism has been published by the Jewish Publication Society, under the title "Jews and Judaism in the Nineteenth Century." These lectures were delivered in the winter of 1899-1900, before the Verein für jüdische Geschichte und Literatur.

One of the first attempts of a Southern man to prepare an impartial statement of the causes of the Civil War has resulted in the volume entitled "The Brothers' War," by John C. Reed (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). It is true that few Americans, either Northern or Southern born, are prepared to accept without reservation all the propositions set forth by Mr. Reed in this book,-particularly his conclusions regarding the race question,-but it is also undeniably true that Mr. Reed's analysis of the old-time prejudices of the respective sections is to a great degree accurate and sane, and can hardly fail to make for an increasing tolerance on the part of both sections. Southerners will read the volume

to see how far one of their own household may go in friendly concessions to their opponents, while Northerners will find entertainment and profit in this Southerner's defense of his own institutions and frank criticism of those who in past years believed it their duty to overthrow those institutions. One of the characteristic features of Mr. Reed's writing is his frank recognition of the actual results of the war. The tendency of his book is to make each section more fully recognize the other's point of view.

A fresh treatment of a theme about which much has been written is the volume entitled "In and Out of the Old Missions of California," by George Wharton James (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). Besides summarizing the historical account of the Franciscan missions of California, Mr. James analyzes the mission style of architecture, and gives pictorial accounts of the interior decorations of the missions,-the furniture, pulpits, doors, and other woodwork,-and other interesting details. Mr. James also describes the condition of the Indians prior to, during, and after the mission epoch, and includes a full and exhaustive chapter on the subject of secularism. The numerous illustrations of the volume have been reproduced from photographs, many of which were made by the author himself.

Mr. William Henry Johnson's "French Pathfinders in North America" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) recounts the adventures and discoveries of Cartier, Champlain, Marquette, La Salle, and other of the old French explorers, comprising, in fact, a complete narrative of French exploration in America, written in a style especially adapted for younger readers.

A series of papers by Prof. John Bassett Moore on the fundamental policies of our attitude toward other countries have been appearing in a number of the magazines and reviews during the past year, and have attracted wide attention in Europe and America. These papers have now been collected and published in a book

JOHN C. REED.

entitled "American Diplomacy: Its Spirit and Achiev ments" (Harpers). Professor Moore'sown reputation as a diplomat is equaled by his ability to write forceful, clear, and fascinating essays, elaborating from apparently unimportant events in our national history an exposition of the principles by which our statesmen have been guided, thus laying down an outline of the distinctive purposes of American diplomacy. Nothing, says Professor Moore, in his preface, could be more erroneous than

the supposition that the United States has, as the result of certain changes in its habits, suddenly become within the last few years a "world power." The United States has, in reality, "always been in the fullest and highest sense a world power; and the record of its achievements in the promulgation and spread of liberal and humane doctrines is one in which no American need hesitate to own a patriotic pride." This volume is illustrated with portraits.

Captain Mahan's latest work, "Sea Power in Its Relations to the War of 1812," in two volumes (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), concludes the series of "The Influence of Sea Power Upon History" as originally conceived by the author. Captain Mahan maintains that the American victories on Lake Erie and Lake Champlain, in the War of 1812, illustrate the controlling influence of naval power, even when transferred from the sea to inland bodies of fresh water. He derives from that experience the same lesson as that which in earlier volumes he has drawn from the larger fields of war. It is not by isolated operations or naval duels that wars are decided, but by force massed and handled in skillful combination. From his survey of the long train of causes that led to the War of 1812, Captain Mahan concludes that Washington's warnings to prepare for war and build a navy in the early years of the French revolutionary wars should have been obeyed, and that war should have been declared by this country not later than 1807, when Great Britain refused to give up her practice of impressing American seamen.

It is well known that the late Dr. Henry Martyn Dexter had collected the materials of an elaborate record of the movement in England that led to the emigration of the Pilgrims to Holland and, later, to America. These materials have been worked over by Dr. Dexter's son, Morton Dexter, and now appear in the form of a substantial volume, entitled "The England and Holland of the Pilgrims" (Houghton, Mifflin). This work opens with an interesting description of "the England of our fathers," traces the religious and ecclesiastical movement from which the Pilgrim Church was evolved, narrates the exodus to Holland, and concludes with a detailed story of the sojourn of the Pilgrims, year by year, in Amsterdam and in Leyden. This is by all odds the most complete record of Pilgrim origins yet pub-

lished in this country.

It is many years since Mr. Justin McCarthy wrote his "History of Our Own Times," and the author, who was a young man when he began his task, has lived through three more stirring decades and been a keen observer, if not an active participant, in many of the history-making events of these later times. Almost twenty years after the publication of his original history, it was necessary to add supplementary chapters, continuing the narrative down to Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee, in 1897, and now there appear two more volumes, covering the period from the Diamond Jubilee to the accession of King Edward VII. (Harpers). These volumes include, not only an account of all the events of public importance occurring in the British Empire between those dates, but also a retrospect of the important changes which the reign of Queen Victoria saw in the public life, the literature, art, and science of that period. Following out the purpose of his work, the author has made these concluding volumes of the series, not merely a record of events and dates, but a survey of life and of social progress.

In the "Medieval Town" series (Macmillan), the story of Edinburgh is contributed by Oliphant Smeaton. The architectural features of this noble Scottish city are well brought out in the drawings by Herbert Railton and J. Ayton Symington, as well as in the text.

Mr. Frederick A. Ober, whose histories of the West Indies are well known, has compiled a readable biography of Hernando Cortés, the conqueror of Mexico

(Harpers). This little book begins with an account of conditions in Spain at the beginning of the sixteenth century, and tells how Cortés, a bankrupt Cuban planter, set out for Mexico with a band of five hundred untrained soldiers and sailors, and how by various alliances and intrigues he worked his way to absolute dominion in the city of Mexico.

Two of the most recent volumes in the series of "American Commonwealths" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) are "Louisiana: A Record of Expansion," by Albert Phelps, and "Rhode Island: A Study in Separatism," by Irving B. Richman. Mr. Phelps has a large subject in Louisiana, since it involves a survey of the great conflict between the Latin and the Saxon races for the possession of the Mississippi Valley. Mr. Richman's theme, on the other hand, involves the play of forces wholly antagonistic to those of expansion. The significant feature of Rhode Island history is truly, as Mr. Richman aptly puts it, separatism. The conflicting and apparently irreconcilable forces that have been at work through all our national history in the development of different States of the Union could not be better illustrated than in these histories of two commonwealths.

The story of our dealings with the American Indian is related by Seth K. Humphrey, under the title "The In-

CHIEF JOSEPH.

From "The Indian Dispossessed."

dian Dispossessed" (Little, Brown & Co.). The author has gone to the official records for his account of our national government's dealings with the reservation Indian, the breaking of faith, and the successive removals of the Indians from their homes to regions less attractive to white settlers. There is an interesting chapter, entitled "Dividing the Spoils," which gives a good description of the scenes at

the opening of the Cherokee strip. Another chapter is devoted to an exposition of the vicious influences in our own system, which have resulted in repeated acts of injustice, notwithstanding the general good intentions of the American people.

A man who has been prosecuted by his government not less than nine times for political offenses and has passed two years of his life in prison might be supposed to have some stirring reminiscences of revolutionary politics. Such has been the experience of William O'Brien, M.P., the Irish irreconcilable, whose recollections have just been published by the Macmillan Company. Mr. O'Brien's present volume, however, is concerned less with his own personal vicissitudes than with the history of the Irish agitation during the past thirty years. One chapter, indeed, entitled "My First Word and Last on Irish Affairs," sums up the Irish situation in the years 1870 to 1874 in a way that gives us the author's distinct point of view. Mr. O'Brien's conspicuous position in journalism not only made him a shining mark for the government prosecutors, but provided him with an immense store of material from which he has been able to construct a history of those

times. The reminiscences which he has seen fit to publish in the present volume are chiefly confined to the '70's and '80's of the last century.

The fourth volume of Herbert Paul's "History of Modern England" (Macmillan) begins with the Eastern troubles which terminated in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, chronicles the successive stages in the Irish controversy of the early '80's, and closes with the fall of the Glad-



. WILLIAM O'BRIEN.

stone ministry in 1885. The first part of the volume is chiefly occupied with England's foreign relations, and the latter part with the various phases of the Irish

roblem

The articles on American political history contributed to Lalor's "Cyclopedia of Political Science, Political Economy, and Political History" by the late Prof. Alexander Johnston have been incorporated into a work entitled "American Political History" (Putnams), consisting of two volumes, edited and supplemented by Prof. James A. Woodburn, of Indiana University. The first part covers the Revolution, Constitution, and growth of nationality, 1763–1832. The material on this subject originally prepared by Professor Johnston has been for a quarter of a century recognized by teachers and students as extremely valuable. In the present form of publication, they will have a still wider service and usefulness.

A strategical history of our Civil War has been written by Lieut W. Birkbeck Wood and Maj. J. E. Edmonds, of the British army. The impartiality of these writers will not be questioned. The technical literature of the war is now so voluminous that the student of strategy may learn from a compilation of this kind important and profitable lessons. The work is provided with excellent maps and plans. The political and diplomatic side of the war is ignored except in those instances when it directly influenced the military course

of events.

Under the title "Historic Illinois" (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), Mr. Randall Parrish has written an entertaining volume of historic romance, beginning with accounts of the monuments left by so-called mound-builders in Illinois, following these with descriptions of old Indian villages and battlefields, then taking up the tales of the first European explorers, tracing their journeys by waterways and forest trails, and outlining the early settlements of trading posts down to and including the American occupation of the early nineteenth century.

The background of Italian history which finds its support in the traditions of Rome has been presented in graphic, complete fashion by Dr. Ettore Pais, formerly professor in the University of Wisconsin and now in the University of Naples, in a volume entitled "Ancient Legends of Roman History" (Dodd, Mead), which has been translated by Mr. Mario E. Cosenza, of the

College of the City of New York. This is a very comprehensive volume of more than three hundred pages, illustrated, and supplied with copious notes and tables.

The art of the raconteur and the littérateur have been devoted a good deal, during the past year, to the France of three centuries ago. Two charmingly written and illustrated volumes on the reign of the Grand Monarch consider "Versailles and the Court Under Louis XIV." (Century) and "Louis XIV. and La Grande Mademoiselle" (Putnams). The author of the first named, Mr. James Eugene Farmer, has already written a successful volume of "Essays on French History." In the present volume, he endeavors to give us the "atmosphere" of the brilliant and lavish court at Versailles during the days of the Grand Monarch. The volume contains a suggestive description of Louis the man. He possessed, "perhaps more than any other monarch, that terrifying majesty so natural to a king." Mme. Arvéde Barine, in the other volume ("Louis XIV. and La Grande Mademoiselle"), attempts to reveal the intimate life of the monarch in his early and more passionate period. The Grande Mademoiselle, cousin to the king, also showed herself a true child of her century, and it is in describing the changing conditions of the court during her career that the author aims to set forth the beginnings of political, religious, and economic liberty in France.

Very appropriately, in conjunction with the celebration of the Franklin bicentennial, there appears a new edition of the writings of Benjamin Franklin, collected and edited, with a life and introduction, by Alfred Henry Smyth (Macmillan). It may surprise even our well-



BENJAMIN HENRY LATROBE. Frontispiece (reduced) from "The Journal of Latrobe."

informed readers to learn that many Franklin manuscripts have been discovered since the Bigelow edition of his writings in 1887. Mr. Smyth tells us that in the University of Pennsylvania alone there is a collection of more than eight hundred of Franklin's private papers, which was brought to light in 1903 and has never been seen until now by any editor. As a pertion of his task, Mr. Smyth has made a minute study of the thirteen thousand Franklin documents in the American Philosophical Society's collection. These docu-

ments comprise a correspondence carried on in nine languages with all the world, and deal with every theory of philosophy and every scheme of politics, familiar and unfamiliar, in the eighteenth century. These instances suffice to show the importance of this authoritative edition of Franklin's works, which itself does much to commemorate the two-hundredth anniversary of his birth.

"The Journal of Latrobe" (Appletons) comprises the notes and sketches made by Benjamin Henry Latrobe, the architect of the Capitol at Washington, during his travels in the United States from 1796 to 1820. A sketch of Latrobe, written by one of his descendants, prefaces the volume. Latrobe was a naturalist as well as an architect, and portions of his journal,—as, for instance, his account of the "habits of certain Virginia insects," observed in the year 1796,—are not without interest to naturalists of the present day. He was also a man of the world and a clever commentator on what he saw going on around him. One of the best pen pictures of Washington that we have is Latrobe's ac-

OLIVER ELLSWORTH.

Frontispiece (reduced) from "The Life of Oliver Ellsworth."

count of a visit to the Father of his Country at Mount Vernon in 1796.

Mr. William Garrott Brown has written "The Life of Oliver Ellsworth" (Macmillan). Ellsworth's career is interesting at the present time,-not only because of his important part in the discussions of the Continental Congress and the constitutional convention of 1789, but also as a typical life, beginning in colonial times in a portion of Connecticut somewhat remote from the centers of population. Ellsworth

lived to become a Senator of the new federal government, and, finally, chief justice of the Supreme Court. He always retained his home at Windsor, on the Connecticut River, and believed that no spot in America had greater natural attractions.

LITERARY BIOGRAPHY AND AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

The complete and authorized biography of Sidney Lanier, by Edwin Mims (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), comes from the press twenty-four years after the poet's death. In the scant two score years of Lanier's earthly life, which began at Macon, Ga., in 1842, he was by turns a student, a teacher, a Confederate soldier, a lawyer, a musician, a university lecturer, a poet, and an essayist, and in each of these callings he made his mark. Professor Mims, himself a Southerner, has written intelligently and sympathetically of Lanier's Southern environment. He pictures the young Georgian as a man among men in the intense struggles against adversity which engaged all Southern youth in the years immediately following the Civil War. Lanier's life was by no means lacking in picturesque incident, but his biographer has done well to place his emphasis on the silent months and years of scholarly and artistic growth which flowered at last in verse of exquisite melody and grace. His lectureship at the Johns Hopkins University, in the early days of that institution, proved to be the culmination of an all too brief career. The biographer makes good use of the poet's letters to members of his family and intimate friends in relating the story of his life. In no other way could the rare qualities of such a personality be portrayed.

A sumptuous edition, in two volumes, of Sainte-Beuve's "Portraits of the Eighteenth Century" has just appeared in English translation (Vol. I. by Katharine P. Wormeley, and Vol. II. by George Burnham



SIDNEY LANIER.

Ives), with critical introductions by Edmond Scherer, published by the Putnams. These portraits are historical and literary essays, taken from Sainte-Beuve's famous "Causeries du Lundi," "Portraits de Femmes," and "Portraits Littéraires." The French originals, it will be remembered, were published in fifteen or sixteen volumes, and these two are selections and abridgments. The first volume consists of "portraits" (among others) of Madame de Staël, Le Sage, Montesquieu, Voltaire, Chesterfield, Franklin, Louis XV., and the Abbé Barthélemy. The second volume includes pen sketches of Madame Necker, Diderot, Rousseau, Buffon, Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, Frederick the Great, Beaumarchais, Jacques Necker, and Marie Antoinette. Typographically, the volumes are all that could be desired, and the illustrations are excellent.

A great deal of personal as well as literary interest attaches to the "Letters of Henrik Ibsen," which have just been published by Fox, Duffield & Co. The translation is by John Nilsen Laurvik and Mary Morison. For the past twenty-five years Ibsen has desired to write an account of his own psychological and artistic development, but was dissuaded from this by his publisher, Frederik Hegel. Now, in the latest years of his life, when his memoirs are not even near completion, this collection of letters may perhaps take the place of the contemplated autobiography. Extending as they do over a period of more than fifty years, they present the man during the changing conditions of his life and his friendships, and contain a good deal of biographical and literary interest which has never before been made public. They were written without any thought of publication, and have, therefore, very little literary character about them. Giving, as they do, unreserved expression to his personal feelings, they also throw light upon the development of his theories of life and art and upon the germination, growth, and aim of his works. There are no letters to Ibsen in this collection,—only those from his own pen. It is like listening to some one telephoning, but, as is often the case, the



HENRIK IBSEN.
(Frontispiece from "Letters of Henrik Ibsen,")

listener can gain an excellent idea of the other speaker's questions from the answers he hears. Some of the most interesting letters in the collection are those to the Danish critic, Georg Brandes.

Beyond a doubt, the most noteworthy literary biography which has come to us from England during the past season is Herbert Paul's new biography of Froude (Scribners). It must be admitted that Mr. Paul's work is not so much a life of the brilliant English historian as an essay on Froude's life and opinions. There is, perhaps, nothing really new in the volume, but there is certainly a great deal of vigorous, pungent, and intellectually brilliant comment on the views and accomplishments of the late historian. Mr. Paul discusses Froude's early life, his Oxford education, the High Church and Broad Church controversies, his relations with Freeman and Carlyle, and his attitude on the disputed historical points of the Reformation, the English in Ireland, and the English in their own empire. In general, says Mr. Paul, despite some temporary reactions, Froude remained throughout his career a "Protestant, Puritan, sea-loving, priest-hating Englishman." This may not be the temperament required for a man to treat history as a science. Indeed, if history be a science, says Mr. Paul, Froude was no historian. "He must remain outside the pale, in the company of Thucydides, Tacitus, Gibbon, Macaulay, and Mommsen." If history, however, be an art, then Froude's work is imperishable.

The last work in Mr. E. V. Lucas' comprehensive and scholarly series on Charles and Mary Lamb is "The Life of Charles Lamb" (Putnams), written by Mr. Lucas himself, in two handsomely illustrated volumes aggregating more than eleven hundred pages. In his preface, Mr. Lucas lists and briefly characterizes other biographies of the famous Lambs, and shows how these, while invaluable in other fields, do not aim at completeness. The present work is full of personalia, correspondence, and anecdotes, approaching in minutia of detail the famous Boswell's "Johnson." Mr. Lucas has endeavored, so far as possible, to present the story of Lamb's life and that of his sister in their own words and those of their contemporaries. "I have tried to be," he says, "less of author than of stage manager." He points out the lack of any memorial to Lamb, with the exception of the joint tablet to Cowper, Keats, and Lamb in the Edmonton church, and regrets that "a stranger to our land seeks in vain for any national expression of admiration or love for one who was at once perhaps the sweetest, sanest, and most human of English prose writers." The illustrations in these volumes are of unusual interest, including hitherto unpublished drawings and sketches of Lamb and his sister, of Leigh Hunt, and of Hazlitt. At the end of the second volume are four appendices, with a reprint of some of the poetical work of John Lamb, Sr. Mr. Lucas acknowl-



MARY AND CHARLES LAMB. (From the painting by F. S. Cary in 1834.)

edges his debt to preceding works on Lamb, particularly to the recently published "Final Memorials" of Talfourd. His work is a noteworthy contribution to literary memorabilia.

What is probably the most complete and authoritative life of Goethe, the final work of Dr. Albert Biel-

schowsky, has been translated from the German by William A. Cooper, assistant professor of German in the Leland Stanford, Jr., University. This work is entitled simply "The Life of Goethe" (Putnams), and is in three volumes, finely illustrated. The first volume, covering



GOETHE IN HIS THIRTIETH YEAR. (From a portrait by May, now in Stuttgart.)

the period from the poet's birth to his return from Italy (1749 to 1788), has just appeared. This biography empraces the results of all previous studies of Goethe, and is written with a highly artistic finish not always characteristic of literary biographies. The German periodical press is almost unanimous in declaring it to be the most important life of Goethe, from the standpoint of scholarship, sympathetic interpretation, and literary art, written in many years.

An excellent three-volume edition of the works of George Herbert, with a biographical sketch, has been prepared by George Herbert Palmer (Houghton, Mifflin). This, although it is probably the most complete, and, critically speaking, the final edition of the English poet's works, is really a labor of love, the result of a lifetime of study. As Professor Palmer admits in his preface, "there are few to whom this work will seem worth while. It embodies long labor spent on a minor poet, and will probably never be read entire by any one." Nevertheless, he tells us, it is a labor of love for one who attended his entire life. The poetry of Herbert is so mingled with devout piety that this devotion seems particularly appropriate on the part of a literary man of religious turn of mind. Despite the elaborate ecclesiasticism of the old Puritan writer, Professor Palmer declares that he is profoundly grateful to Herbert for "the struggling soul, the high-bred gentleman, the sagacious observer, the master of language, and the persistent artist" of which his life affords an example.

The three volumes are very handsomely printed and illustrated.

Two new volumes of the "English Men of Letters" series, which John Morley is editing for the Macmillans, are the lives of Andrew Marvell, by Augustine Birrell, and Sir Thomas Browne, by Edmund Gosse. The keynote of Mr. Birrell's volume is given in his first paragraph, when he refers to Marvell as "the author of poetry of exquisite quality, where for the last time may be heard the priceless note of the Elizabethan lyricist, while at the same time utterance is being given to thoughts and feelings which reach far forward to Wordsworth and Shelley." Mr. Gosse's sketch is written in his own lucid style, and contains a very interesting chapter on the religio medici.

In the "Literary Lives," a series being edited for the Scribners by W. Robertson Nicoll, we now have "Charlotte Brontë and Her Sisters," by Clement K. Shorter. Mr. Shorter, in his modest prefatory note, declares that he has attempted to disarm criticism by stating that he has tried to let Charlotte Brontë tell her own story through her letters. This is his apology for adding another work to the already long list of Brontëana. The present volume is illustrated, chiefly with portraits:

Much the same thing is attempted by Mr. Ferris Greenslet in his new life of James Russell Lowell (Houghton, Mifflin). He has endeavored to make Lowell tell his own story and be his own interpreter in short excerpts from his correspondence. This volume is illustrated.

A one-volume edition of "The Diary of Samuel Pepys" (Macmillan) has been edited, with an introduction and notes, by G. Gregory Smith. Such is the romance of authorship that what was intended to be the most private of documents has become one of the great books of history, and it is a real service to literature to have published in one volume this classic of small-talk and amusing confessions. There is a good index to the volume.

A new edition of the "Autobiography of Anthony Trollope," with a frontispiece portrait, has been issued

by Dodd, Mead & Co. His preface is the original one by Henry M. Trollope, written by his son in 1883, shortly after the novelist's death.

Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton has written some entertaining, chatty, sympathetic essays on American literature, chiefly of the New England school, which have been published under the title "Famous American Authors" (Crowell).

A new edition, in

(From an old painting.) one volume, of Tennyson's Memoirs, by his son, has been brought out by the Macmillans. This work has become such a well-known part of the literature which the world would not willingly be without that there is nothing further to say, except that this one-volume edition is of convenient size and attractive make-up.



GEORGE HERBERT.

ON PURE LITERATURE.

Of studies of pure literature and great literary works, several important volumes have recently appeared. Dr. W. J. Dawson's "Makers of English Fiction" (Revell) is a volume of literary criticism of unusual importance. Dr. Dawson, who has been in this country for some weeks sounding the note of English evangelism, and who is the author of some books of keen, virile philosophy, handles chapters with a skill which indicates the

sure touch of a real critic. His interpretation is marked by insight, sympathy, and common sense. America, he tells us, has produced at least two writers who deserve to rank with the great writers and masters of fiction - Hawthorne and Poe. The great writer, says Dr. Dawson, reaches his greatness "through a superior sensitiveness to the conditions of his time." Because the true novel is a work of art, it is never likely, he maintains, to lose its power over the hu-



DR. W. J. DAWSON.

man mind. "It may have its periods of decay, as all arts have; it will also have its resurrections into new forms." Beginning with Defoe, Dr. Dawson concludes with a consideration of Robert Louis Stevenson.

Prof. William P. Trent's volume on "Greatness in Literature" (Crowell) approaches the subject from a slightly different standpoint. Professor Trent (who is speaking in the words of several lectures on English literature at Columbia University) points out certain rules and considerations that should aid critics and readers in a helpful appreciation of the best in modern literature.

A collection of "English Essays" (Holt), selected and edited by Dr. Walter C. Bronson, professor of English literature at Brown University, is intended for use in college classes in introductory courses in literature. By means of this collection, Dr. Bronson hopes to enable the teacher to put "that embarrassing but profitable question: 'Understandest thou what thou readest.'"

A series of "Representative Essays on the Theory of Style" (Macmillan) has been selected and edited by Mr. William T. Brewster, adjunct professor of English at Columbia, for the purpose of supplementing the various treatises and handbooks for rhetorical study now in the field. The essays are most excellently chosen, and are from the following authors: John Henry Newman (literature), Thomas de Quincey (style), Herbert Spencer (the philosophy of style), George Henry Lewes (the principles of success and beauty in literature), Robert Louis Stevenson (the technical elements of style in literature), Walter Pater (style), and, finally, Frederic Harrison (English prose).

A useful little manual on the mechanics of literature is Mr. Frank H. Vizetelly's "The Preparation of Manuscripts for the Printer" (Funk & Wagnalls). Mr. Vizetelly, who is associate editor of the Standard

Dictionary, gives in brief, compact form a number of useful suggestions as to the preparation of manuscript for composition, and also some other information on the technicalities of typography.

NEW BOOKS OF ITALIANA.

A well-sustained, complete history of Italy, from the earliest days of Rome down to the year of grace 1904, is Mrs. Augusta Hale Gifford's "Italy: Her People and Their Story" (Lothrop). Mrs. Gifford gathered her material and obtained her background from many years' residence in Italy. She has really written a popular history of the land of art and song, from the time of Romulus to that of Victor Emmanuel III. Throughout the more than seven hundred pages of this volume there are scattered many interesting portraits and reproductions of famous paintings.

Another history of Italy, from 476 to 1900, has been issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It is from the pen of Henry Dwight Sedgwick. Mr. Sedgwick has departed from the continuous narrative only to lay emphasis upon the three subjects of the greatest general interest both to Italy and the outside world,—the Papacy, the Renaissance, and the Risorgimento. His special object, he declares, has been "to put in high relief those achievements which make Italy so charming and so interesting to the whole world."

Two other volumes on the Italy of English literature have been published,—"With Shelley in Italy," a collection and selection, and "The Florence of Landor," by Lilian Whiting. "With Shelley in Italy" (McClurg) is a selection of the poems and letters of the poet Shelley which have to do with his life in Italy from 1818 to 1822. These have been selected and arranged by Anna Benneson McMahn, editor of "Florence in the Poetry of the Brownings." The volume is illustrated with reproductions of famous paintings and with bits of Italian landscape made memorable by Shelley's sojourn. There is no doubt that it is the Italian in Shelley's poetry which makes him the particular kind of great poet that he is,



MRS. AUGUSTA HALE GIFFORD.

and this little volume throws some interesting sidelights on the background of his works. "The Florence of Landor" (Little, Brown) marks a new literary departure for Miss Whiting. The reading world had grown so accustomed to expecting a book on "The World Beautiful" each year from Miss Whiting that this volume comes as a surprise. It is an attempt to suggest towns the living drama of famous English and American men and women of letters that was set in the charming scenic enchantment of Florence during the period

of Walter Savage Landor's life in that city (1821 to 1864). The book is illustrated from photographs, and the frontispiece is a reproduction of Charles Caryll Cole-

man's oil portrait of Landor in his later years, which is owned by Miss Whiting.

"Two in Italy" (Little, Brown), by Maud Howe, author of "Roma Beata, Letters from the Eternal City," is a collection of Italian studies and sketches. It is charmingly illustrated.

It is indeed a noteworthy year during which F.



WALTER SAVAGE LANDOR.

(From the original painting by Charles Caryll Coleman. Frontispiece.)

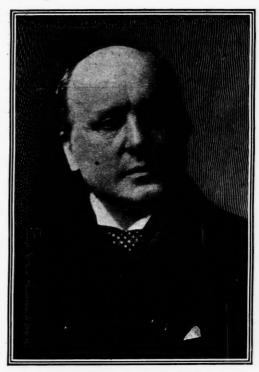
Marion Crawford does not bring out at least one new book or new edition about Italy. His "SalveVenetia!" a series of gleanings from Venetian history, has just been brought out by the Macmillans in a sumptuous two-volume form, exquisitely printed and illustrated, with two hundred and twentyfive pictures by Joseph Pennell. It would be difficult to say which is the more artistic and fascinating, the text or the pictures. Both present a graphic picture of that most stirring and fascinating story,-the history of Venice. Just from the press of the Macmillans, also, we now have a one-volume edition of Mr. Craw-

ford's "Southern Italy and Sicily and the Rulers of the South," with one hundred original drawings by Henry Brokman, and with some revision and emendation by Mr. Crawford.

BY AND CONCERNING HENRY JAMES.

The past few months have seen the publication of a number of volumes with the name of Henry James on the title page-as author or subject. The latest of these works of Jamesiana are: "English Hours" (Houghton, Mifflin), by Henry James, and "The Novels of Henry James" (Putnams), a study by Elizabeth Luther Cary. "English Hours" was originally published-or at least part of the volume-some thirty years ago. To the original collection, however, have been added a number appearing in recent magazines, and the present volume has been finely illustrated by Joseph Pennell. With all respect to the critics, somehow we find Mr. James at his best in these impressionistic sketches rather than in some of his much more lauded novels. Miss Cary, who, it will be remembered, is the author of studies on the Rossettis and William Morris, has given us a study of Mr. James' novels exclusively. In her introductory chapter, in excellent broad lines, she characterizes Mr. James' work by saying that "he reaches depths and crannies of character and temperament to which none of his predecessors could have penetrated, making his way through the baffling layers of cant and custom and back of the sturdy file of obvious motives guarding the secrets of our innermost being by means of a passion for truth too intense and moving to be classified as philosophy."

When Mr. James was in the United States last spring, he delivered two lectures on literary subjects



HENRY JAMES.

which aroused considerable interest and discussion. In one of these, on "The Question of Our Speech," he incurred a storm of newspaper criticism for some very pungent criticism of the American press and public schools, "which help to keep our speech untidy and slovenly." The second lecture, "The Lesson of Balzac," was a searching discussion of the principles of fiction as an art. These two have now been published in one volume, under the general title "The Question of Our Speech" (Houghton, Mifflin).

VOLUMES OF POEMS AND BOOKS ON POETRY.

Lovers of what real poetry is written to-day will find comfort and nourishment in Mr. Bliss Carman's collection of essays entitled "The Poetry of Life" (L. C. Page). Mr. Carman, whose exquisite poetic insight is only equaled by his exquisite poetic workmanship, believes that the religious consciousness is returning to man and that poetry will return with religion. We shall need poetry more and more, is his dictum, under the increasing destructions and complications of life.

A new edition of the collected poems of William Watson (John Lane), in two volumes, has been edited by J. A. Spender. Mr. Watson's place in the hall of English poets is too well assured to attempt any critical estimate. Mr. Spender's attempt has been simply to take the poet's best work and put it in as coherent a scheme as possible to illustrate the writer's thought and style. The excellent frontispiece portrait of Mr. Watson is reproduced on the next page.

The familiar names of Richard Watson Gilder, James Whitcomb Riley, Paul Laurence Dunbar, John Vance Cheney, and Frederick Lawrence Knowles appear on recent volumes of verse. Mr. Gilder's latest little collection (of course, issued by the Century Company) is his eighth volume of poems, and contains nearly all that he has written during the past four years. It is entitled "In the Heights," and closes with

a republication of the well-known poem "The White Czar." "Riley's got a new book out," and, moreover, has dedicated it to Bliss Carman. It consists of some of Mr. Riley's very latest verse, and is entitled "Songs o' Cheer" (Bobbs-Merrill). It is illustrated in color by Will Vawter. Mr. Dunbar's work still shows the sustaining power which has delighted those who recognized in his earlier work real poetic fire and prophesied its development. The latest collection is entitled "Howdy, Honey,



BLISS CARMAN.

Howdy!" (Dodd, Mead), and it is illustrated with photographs by Leigh Richmond Miner. Mr. John Vance Cheney has made another collection from his sheaf of magazine verse, and the collection has been published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. "On Life's Stairway" (Dana Estes) is the name Mr. Knowles has given to his latest collection, which is really a revised edition of the volume of original verse issued in 1900.

Miss Helen Hay Whitney's "Sonnets and Songs" (Harpers) contain some of the best of the magazine verse of this writer, including the exquisite "With Music" and "Aspiration."

"The Poems of Trumbull Stickney" (Houghton,

Mifflin) have at last been collected by his literary executors and published with a brief biographical note. Mr. Stickney, it will be remembered, died while instructor of Greek at Harvard, and before he had completed his thirtieth year.

Mr. Edwin Arlington Robinson's collection of poems, under the title "The Children of the Night" (Scribners), shows real poetic in sight and a fine touch. It was of this collection that President Roosevelt said:



ETHNA CARBERRY.

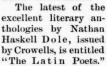
"There is an undoubted touch of genius in the poems. . . . Mr. Robinson has written in this little volume, not verse, but poetry."

There is something remarkably suggestive of Keats

with a Celtic mysticism added about the collection of poems of Ethna Carberry (Anna MacManus), which has just been published by Funk & Wagnalls, under the title "The Four Winds of Erinn." The edition is edited, with an introduction, by her husband, Seumas MacManus. A mystic Celtic love of duty which is almost idolatry, although religious devotion fairly shines from the pages, characterizes these poems, particularly the exquisite "The Love Talker" and "The Passing of the Gael."

Among other poems of verse received are: "The City" (Maemillan), by Arthur Upson; "The Tragedy of Eden" (F. L. Rowe, Cincinnati), by Campbell Carnes; "My Lady of the Searchlight" (the Grafton Press), by Mary Hall Leonard; "Alcestis and Other Poems" (Maemillan), by Sara King Wiley; "Banjo Talks" (Bobbs-Merrill), by Anne Virginia Culbertson; "Forest Leaves," by William Penn Shockley, published by the author at Dover, Del.; "An Alphabet of History" (Paul Elder), the words by Wilbur D. Nesbit and the pictures by Ellsworth Young; "A Chorus of Leaves" (Paul Elder), by Charles G. Blanden; "Sweeter Still Than This" (Saalfield Publishing Company), by Adah Louise Sut-

ton, illustrated and decorated by Carl Williams and Ida Rockwell; "The Fairy Godmother - in - law" (Scribners), by Oliver Herford, with some pictures by the author; "San Quentin Days," published by Joseph M. Anderson, of Sacramento, Cal.; and "The Faithless Favorite," a tragedy in verse, by Edwin Sauter, published by the author in St. Louis.





WILLIAM WATSON.

Mr. Dole reminds us that while many English scholars may prefer Greek, the fact remains that Latin is nearer to our mother tongue and is acquired with much less effort. If the Roman poets "never worked themselves quite free from the influence of Greece, they certainly created a literature that satisfied their own wants and has been a delight to the civilized world for two thousand years."

While we are considering anthologies,—although it may be a far cry from Latin poets to modern horses,—the collection of verses entitled "Saddle and Song," recently issued by Lippincott, is an excellent one, and there are some appropriate illustrations.

Arthur Symons has edited "A Sixteenth Century Anthology," which the H. M. Caldwell Company issue with a frontispiece portrait of the immortal William Shakespeers

Among collections of verse for holiday, birthday, or special seasons, we have received copies of "Selections from Saxe" (Houghton, Mifflin); "The Joys of Friendship" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard), edited by Mary Alette Ayer; "The Blue Monday Book" and "Sovereign Woman

versus Mere Man" (Paul Elder), compiled by Jennie Day Haines; four little collections of verse and prose in the Treasury Series, issued by Henderson, London, and imported by the Broadbent Press, which contain selections from Lowell and Emerson and verses from many poets on love and consolation; two handsomely printed and bound collections of verse and poetic prose coming from H. M. Caldwell Company are entitled "The Value of Simplicity" (edited by Mary Minerva Barrows) and "The Value of Courage" (edited by Frederick Lawrence Knowles).

NEW WORKS ON ART AND ARTISTS.

"The Art of the Venice Academy" (L. C. Page), by Mary Knight Potter, is a brief history of the building and its collection of paintings, with reproductions of the most famous works of art contained therein. The work is appreciatively and sympathetically written.

In two well-illustrated monographs, Japanese arts and crafts are considered. Mr. Ralph Adams Cram, in his "Impressions of Japanese Architecture and the Allied Arts" (Baker & Taylor), gives us a keen analysis, interestingly written, of the beauties of Japanese architecture, with a number of original plans and some very unusual pictures. The chapter entitled "The Genius of Japanese Art" is especially interesting and well written. Mr. Cram's recognized position in American architecture gives him authority to speak. The other volume is "Arts and Crafts of Old Japan" (McClurg), by Stewart Dick. This is not intended for the collector or the connoisseur, but for those who require an introduction to the study of Japanese art. The illustrations are supplementary to the text, and very suggestive.

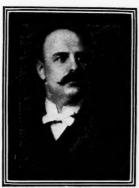
The third volume in the series on the history of American art, edited for the Macmillans by John C. Van Dyke, is "The History of American Painting," by Samuel Isham. In accordance with the general plan of this excellent series, this volume is also authoritative, since it is by an expert who practises the craft whereof he writes. Mr. Isham is an associate of the National Academy of Design and a member of the Society of American Artists. Even though the "fundamental and mastering fact about American painting is that it is in no way native to America, but is European painting imported, or rather transplanted, to America and there cultivated and developed," yet there is something to stir one's pride in the record which Mr. Isham makes of the struggle in the midst of a materialistic, rushing, commercial country and age to express national conceptions in the graphic arts. The whole course of American painting, from the very beginning down to the present, can be spanned by the lives of a few artists. It is a comparatively short time since Prof. S. F. B. Morse was working, and he was a student under Benjamin West, the almost legendary founder of the craft. Mr. Isham divides the history of American painting into three periods,-the colonial, the provincial, and the cosmopolitan. He begins with the influence of English art, and considers, after a few introductory words, Copley and Stuart and West. Then the young country gradually broke away from intellectual independence on the motherland, and the influence of Düsseldorf, Rome, and Paris began to be evident. After the Civil War, the artists went to Europe and studied in the old world, becoming almost aliens to their own country. This ended the period of isolation, and the modern, cosmopolitan period had begun. Only the important, significant names have been considered, and

these not only as individuals, but as made more distinct by their surroundings and background. The rise and growth of the different art organizations are treated at gratifying length. This volume, like the others of the series, is very handsomely printed and illustrated. There are twenty-five full page photogravures and many other illustrations in the text.

In her prefatory essay on Gaelic music to the collection of "Seventy Scottish Songs" (Ditson), Mrs. Helen Hopekirk, who edits the collection, explains the difference between the music of the two Scots—the Celtic and the Saxon. Not only the well-known songs such as "Auld Lang Syne," "Annie Laurie," and the "Blue Bells of Scotland" are included in this collection, but many other beautiful songs very little known. To all of these Mrs. Hopekirk has written artistic accompaniments, which show the deep sympathy and the true understanding of the Scot for those weird, emotional melodies, "so full of the long, tender, melancholy northern twilights."

ECONOMICS AND SOCIOLOGY.

A book of timely interest and importance is Mr. Miles Menander Dawson's treatise on "The Business of Life Insurance" (Barnes). Mr. Dawson is a consulting actuary in New York, and is serving in that capacity with the legislative committee now engaged in the investigation of the insurance business. Mr. Dawson has been for twenty-five years engaged in a careful study of the



Photograph by Pirle MacDonald.

MILES MENANDER DAWSON.

whole subject of life insurance, and his work has received the indorsement of insurance experts throughout the country. His book is written less for the instruction of persons who are engaged in the business of life insurance than for the special uses of the great public which is directly interested in the purchase of insurance. To such it gives in the clearest possible way an exposition of the fundamental principles and the practical workings of life insur-

ance companies as they have been developed in our modern life. A study of Mr. Dawson's conclusions should enable any prospective insurant to decide for himself the kind of insurance which meets his immediate needs. There is nothing sensational in the book, but it is a fair presentation of the whole subject.

An elementary book on sociology has appeared in the "Citizen's Library," edited by Prof. Richard T. Ely (Macmillan). The author of the work is Prof. Frank W. Blackmar, of the University of Kansas. The book presents only a brief outline of the subject, since it is intended to be a working manual for the student and has no room for the elaboration of theories and discussions. References are given at the close of each chapter for comparative reading, and the book is so constructed that it may well serve as an introduction to the subject for university extension classes and other groups of students and readers.



MRS. FLORENCE KELLEY.

Mrs. Florence Kelley, the general secretary of the National Consumers' League, contributes a volume to the "Citizen's Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology" (Macmillan), entitled "Some Ethical Gains through Legislation." The topics treated in this book have been suggested to the writer, or made subjects of special study by her, during many years of settlement work in Chicago and New York. Much of the material was gathered while the writer was special agent for the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Illinois and chief inspector of factories of that city. The chief topics of discussion are,-the regulation of child labor, "the right to leisure," the right of women to the ballot, and the rights of purchasers. In the appendices are printed the texts of a number of important judicial decisions, which illustrate in a pertinent manner the general subject of ethical gains through legislation.

A most timely publication, in view of the railroad debate in the present session of Congress, is the volume entitled "American Railroad Rates," by Judge Walter C. Noyes (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). This is a subject which has heretofore been dealt with chiefly in monographs covering special phases under discussion. The present volume is perhaps the first attempt to cover the entire field. It begins with a statement and exposition of the underlying principles governing railroad rates, and proceeds to give a clear and intelligible exposition of modern American practice, concluding with a chapter on the federal regulation of rates, in which the author proposes a plan providing for the determination of the reasonableness of a rate by the courts, and, in case the rate is found unreasonable, for the making of a new rate by the Interstate Commerce Commission. This, it will be noted, is a reversal of the procedure proposed in Congress, and the merit claimed by its author is that it avoids questions of constitutionality, while in effect it gives the same relief as that sought by the bills under discussion in Congress. This book,

it should be said, deals with freight rates exclusively, and not with passenger fares.

"Trade Unionism and Labor Problems" (Boston : Ginn & Co.) is the title of a volume in the series of "Selections and Documents in Economics" which attempts to apply to the teaching of economics the "case system," which has been found so successful in American law schools. Each chapter in the book is intended to illustrate a single, definite, typical phase of the general subject. The present volume is edited by Prof-John R. Commons, of the University of Wisconsin. It opens with a paper on trade agreements, which was contributed by Professor Commons to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for March, 1901. Among the specific topics treated in this volume are: "The Miners' Union: Its Business Management," "The Teamsters of Chicago," "The New York Building Trades," "The Chicago Building Trades Dispute of 1900," "The Incorporation of Trade Unions," "Decisions of Courts in Labor Disputes," "Labor Conditions in Slaughtering and Meat Packing," "The Introduction of the Linotype," "The Sweating System in the Clothing Trade," "Slavs in Coal Mining," "The New York Artisan," and "Women's Wages in Manual Work." All of these separate chapters are the contributions of original investigators, whose writings have been scattered through a number of economic and trade journals, and, except for this

republication, would not be easily accessible to the reading public.

In the "American Citizen" series (Longmans), Prof. Edwin R. A. Seligman, of Columbia University, contributes a volume entitled "Principles of Economics," with special reference to American conditions. This book is interesting both as a restatement of economic theory, and particularly as an exposition of actual economic conditions in this country. Professor Seligman



JUDGE WALTER C. NOYES.

has given many years of his life to the investigation of specific problems,—notably those connected with taxation and finance. The material thus gathered is made available to the general reader in this interesting volume of six hundred pages.

Most text-books on civics in this country have been confined to a discussion of the forms and functions of government. Dr. S. E. Forman, in a volume on "Advanced Civics" (Century), prefaces his analysis of the form and functions with a discussion of the essential principles of the American Government,—that is to say, its spirit. About one-fourth of the book is given up to this discussion, the remainder being devoted to a general description of local, State, and federal governments, with many suggestions for further reading.

Dr. Washington Gladden's protest against the commercializing of government, of education, and of religion is voiced in a little volume entitled "The New Idolatry" (McClure, Phillips & Co.). Dr. Gladden's famous essay on tainted money is one of the papers in

cluded in this collection. Other topics discussed in the same volume are "The Ethics of Luxurious Expenditure," "The Church of the Nation," and "Religion and Democracy." That the author's convictions on these subjects are not of recent origin is shown by the fact that at least one of these papers was published not less than, ten years ago. In fact, Dr. Gladden's views on the commercialism of

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DR. WASHINGTON GLADDEN.

the age have been expressed many times in his books and magazine articles. The present discussion affords an opportunity for restatement.

STUDIES BY NATURALISTS.

Fifteen years ago appeared the first edition of "The Oyster: A Popular Summary of a Scientific Study," by William K. Brooks (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press). This work, of which a revision has just been published, was written in the hope that it might help to bring about a practical and judicious system of oyster farming in Maryland. To that end, it contained a remarkably interesting account of the way in which the structure and habits of the oyster fit it for cultivation as a submarine product. Some of the lessons taught by Dr. Brooks in his monograph seem to have been heeded by oyster planters along the coasts of Virginia, North Carolina, and Louisiana. In view of the



DR. WILLIAM K. BROOKS.

fact that Dr. Brooks demonstrated to the people of Maryland many years ago that the demand for Chesapeake oysters had outgrown the natural supply, it is strange that his well-considered counsel on the propagation and protection of young oysters should have been disregarded. The general reader, however, though he may have no commercial interest in the subject, will find the discussion extremely interesting and suggestive. It was Dr. Brooks who discovered, in 1878, that

the American oyster, unlike that of northern Europe, breeds its young by throwing the eggs out into the water, where fertilization and development take place. He was the first to fertilize the eggs artificially and to study the development of the embryo. The new edition has an account of the transmission of typhoid and other disease germs by the oyster.

The first volume in the "NewYork Aquarium Nature Series" (Barnes) is contributed by Alfred G. Mayer, director of the Marine Biological Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution at Tortugas, Fla., and is entitled "Sea-Shore Life." It describes the marine invertebrates of the region about New York, but, on account of the wide distribution of this species, it is applicable to the Atlantic coast generally. Like the treatise by Dr. Brooks, this work is popular in character, and at the same time records the scientific observations of a professional zoölogist of the highest standing. It may be used as a reference book for visitors studying the collections of the New York Aquarium.

RECORDS OF EXPLORATION.

Probably the most complete account of the antarctic regions ever published in English is Capt. Robert F. Scott's two-volume record of "The Voyage of the Discovery" (Scribners). Captain Scott, while not an experienced writer, has much to relate of intrinsic interest, and the text is well supplemented by a great number of excellent photographic illustrations by Dr. E. A. Wilson and other members of the expedition. The Discovery left England in the summer of 1901, and was absent for three years. Important observations on antarctic meteorology, geology, and animal life were made, and all these were recorded with scientific accuracy.

Captain Amundsen's recent achievement of the Northwest Passage serves to remind us that the west and northwest coasts of America have for two centuries been the theater of more or less fruitful exploration.



CAPTAIN ROBERT F. SCOTT.

(Frontispiece from Vol. II. of "The Voyage of the Discovery,"

"Vikings of the Pacific" is the appropriate title given to a new volume by Miss A. C. Laut (Macmillan), which records the adventures of such explorers as Bering, the Dane; Cook and Vancouver, the English navigators; Gray, of Boston, the discoverer of the Columbia; Ledyard, that other American, who foresaw the work of Lewis and Clark; Francis Drake in California, and others. Captain Amundsen has just accomplished the journey from the Atlantic to the Pacific going westward, but Miss Laut reminds us that in the early days much of the exploration was undertaken in the opposite direction,-that is, from the west eastward. The importance of the settlements made by the Russians coming overland across Siberia has, perhaps, been underestimated in America. The final chapter of Miss Laut's book is devoted to an account of the foundation of the Russian Empire on the Pacific Coast of America by Baranof. It is remarkable that the details of these early attempts at settlement and trade have remained so long unknown to the mass of American readers.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

The "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature" (Minneapolis: The H. W. Wilson Company) is a cumulated index of a selected list of periodicals, covering the years 1900-04. Many librarians and frequenters of public libraries are familiar with the monthly numbers from which this large index volume is consolidated. The work was begun at the Cleveland Public Library, under the supervision of Mr. W. H. Bret, and was later taken over by the present publishers at Minneapolis. We have watched the development of this index from the beginning, and have noted the excellent methods employed in its compilation. It is not only a subject index, but an author entry is given to each article, and, in the case of fiction, title entries are included. Book reviews are indexed under the name of the author of the book, and are usually given a subject entry also. Under the author's name, articles by him and reviews of his books precede, in alphabetical arrangement, articles about him. Note is also made of maps, portraits, and illustrations. Portraits unaccompanied by text are indexed. The "Monthly Guide" and the cumulated annual volumes are in constant use in this office, and are highly valued for their comprehensiveness, accuracy, and general mechanical excellence. We understand that it is the purpose of the publishers to bring out the consolidated volume every five years.

The appearance of the tenth and eleventh volumes of the Jewish Encyclopedia reminds us that this important work, begun more than seven years ago, is nearing completion. The eleventh volume contains much interesting information regarding the number and condition of the Jews in Servia, South Africa, South America, Spain, Switzerland, and other countries. Although the Jewish population in the South American states is not large, it is worthy of note that Jews had settled in Brazil long before they migrated to North America. Another interesting topic in this volume is the expulsion of the Jews from Spain by Ferdinand and Isabella, in 1492. The activity of modern Jews in movements for social reform is clearly indicated in the article on socialism. It should not be inferred, however, that the material embraced in this encyclopedia is merely of a narrow, racial interest. On the contrary, there is hardly an article in any of the volumes which does not contain valuable and important information for the general reader.

"The Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs"

(Toronto: Annual Review Publishing Company) is a publication which has no counterpart in the United States. It covers, not only the political affairs of the Dominion Government and the different provinces, including chapters on the relations of Canada with the empire and with the United States, but it also gives special attention to the economic interests of the country; transportation lines; life and fire insurance; banking, finance, and general business; agriculture; forests; mines; fisheries; religion and reform work; and education. For every Canadian who wishes to keep in touch with the progress of his native land, such a work must be invaluable. It is a matter of regret that the United States cannot yet boast a work of reference compiled on similar lines.

The current issue of the "American Jewish Year Book" (Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America), the seventh of the series, contains the usual full presentation of Jewish activities in the United States. The biographical sketches appearing in this issue are confined to Jewish communal workers,—those who preside over charitable institutions, the superintendents and directors of charities, and settlement and social workers. There is also an interesting section devoted to Jews in the United States Congress.

RELIGIOUS AND ETHICAL TREATISES.

In these days we are in no danger of having overemphasis placed on any form of ethical teaching,—least of all on the character of Christ. The volume by Prof. Francis G. Peabody, entitled "Jesus Christ and the Christian Character" (Macmillan), is an admirable restatement of Christian ethics in terms of modern personal and social life. Men of every creed and of no creed may alike gain inspiration to right living from this scholarly and yet simply phrased treatise.

A suggestive little work, entitled "A Young Man's Religion and His Father's Faith" (Crowell), has been written by the Rev. N. McGee Waters. It consists of a series of practical talks on churchgoing, religious belief in general, the theory of evolution, and the infallibility of the Bible. These topics are handled without any

trace of cant or bias.

Mr. Henry Wood has written another book on "Advanced and Idealistic Thought." It is entitled "Life More Abundant, being Scriptural Truth in Modern Ap-

plication" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard).

An anonymous volume, entitled "The Creed of Christ" (John Lane), is written with more than ordinary vigor and knowledge of the facts of every-day living. The writer endeavors to set forth the belief of Christ himself and the Redeemer's conception of the origin, meaning, and destiny of humanity.

"The Story of Jesus Told for Little Children," illustrated in color by Anne Batchelor, has been issued by the Dodge Publishing Company, of New York.

Mr. Wentworth F. Stewart's little monograph, "The Evangelistic Awakening" (Jennings & Graham), is a discussion of the religious outlook of to-day, based on

"the laboratory notes of an expert."

The Crowells have issued a new edition, with a frontispiece portrait, of Dr. Charles W. Eliot's "The Happy Life," which is a striking parallel to Charles Wagner's "Simple Life," published a year or two before the latter. As in the now famous volume of the French pastor, so in this book on the president of Harvard is expounded the philosophy of the life that is worth the living.

Among the other religious, ethical, and philosophical publications of the season are: "The Melody of God's Love" (Crowell), by Oliver Huckel; "Good Things and Graces" (Paul Elder & Co.), by Isabel Goodhue; "A Modern Miracle: Psychic Power Made Plain" (Grafton Press), by Corrilla Banister; and "Commands" (Paul Elder & Co.), by Agnes Greene Foster.

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Prof. Harald Höffding, of Copenhagen, who, according to Prof. William James, is "one of the wisest as well as one of the most learned of living philosophers," has summed up his philosophical views in a little volume, under the title "The Problems of Philosophy." A translation from the Danish by Galen M. Fisher, with a preface by Prof. William James, has been published by the Macmillans.

"A Modern Symposium," by G. Lowes Dickinson," author of "Letters from a Chinese Official," comes from the press of McClure, Phillips. It consists of a series of views of life according to the philosophies of typical individualities,-an artist, a poet, a politician, a man of science, a journalist, a business man, and a gentleman of leisure.

The Barrows lectures, delivered by President Hall in India, Ceylon, and Japan during the years 1902 and 1903, have been published in a single volume, under the title "Christian Belief Interpreted by Christian Experience" (Chicago: University of Chicago Press).

SOME NOTEWORTHY NEW NOVELS.

Novelists sometimes strike a true note when statesmen and economists have failed. The writers of fiction, who are—or ought to be—naturally students of character, are often better fitted to interpret racial characteristics than are the discussive writers. This is well illustrated in the excellent novel "Zal" (Century), by Rupert Hughes, which is a pen picture of the impressions and sufferings of a Polish musician who comes to this country and struggles for years to accustom himself to the unpropitious surroundings. Of all the races forming a large proportion of our American cities, particularly New York, the Poles have probably been the least understood. Mr. Hughes' novel gives us a sympathetic and accurate presentation of the Polish character. The very title, "Zal," is a Polish word, almost untranslatable, but thoroughly descriptive of Polish temperament. The story moves swiftly, and the pages which bring out character are excellent. This book cannot fail to be valuable if read carefully by those who are interested in the assimilation of alien peoples in this country.

A work of a different order,-a blend of history and romance,-is "The Missourian," the first book of Eugene P. Lyle, Jr. (Doubleday, Page). That "The Missourian" is destined to receive the hearty support of competent critics and readers is not open to doubt. It is a book of epic breadth and epic power, dealing with great affairs in a worthy spirit. The central theme of "The Missourian" is the fall of the Mexican Empire and the tragic last days and end of Maximilian. Witnesses and actors in these events are Din Driscoll, the Missourian, late lieutenant-colonel in Joe Shelby's brigade of Confederate daredevils, and Jacqueline d'Aumerle, charming emissary from Napoleon III. to the Mexican court. Mr. Lyle possesses true creative vision and power. The characters whom he brings upon his epic stage are many, and are, without exception, entirely individual and convincing, and the burning land of Mexico glimmers before the reader's eyes. Mr. Lyle reaches his highest point of literary

execution in the description of the last days and hours of "Prince Max." He has grasped all the significance of that tragedy, and communicates it to us. But "The Missourian" is not a book that can be discussed with any approach to adequacy in a few lines.

"The Maid of Japan" (Holt) is a small volume, tastefully bound and attractive in its make-up. The tale is

prettily told by Mrs. Hugh Frazer, though the old one of the foreigner's love for the Japanese maid. Many of the situations are cleverly handled, and throughout the book one certainly is impressed with the real spirit of Japan. In other words, the local color of the story is well interpreted, and with the eye of a lover of beauty and harmony.

One of the strong novels of the season, which has a psychological as well as political interest attaching to it, besides being a good story, is Gustave F. Mertin's "The Storm Signal" (Bobbs-Merrill). It is a story of Southern life, in which the negro problem is presented in a new way, with a new suggestion for solution. The author wields a facile pen, and in some scenes, notably the situation in the Macon court-house, becomes a "word lasher" of great power and picturesque virility. The character of the old-time negro is graphically described, and the author shows a keen psychological insight. The book has a vital message for our times.

A few of the other works of fiction worthy of notice which escaped our general review last month are: "The Ballingtons" (Little, Brown), by Frances Squire, a strong story of married life, the interest centering in the spiritual awakening of the wife, her struggle for the rights of her own soul, and presenting a climax of ethical and practical significance; "Captains All"



WILLIAM W. JACOBS.

(Scribners), by that inimitable humorist, W. W. Jacobs, which consists of a series of short stories in Mr. Jacobs' best vein, chiefly describing different phases of London life and showing excellent literary workmanship; "Land Ho!" (Harpers), by Morgan Robertson, a rattling, rousing, salty story of the sea, full of humor and pathos; "Miss Desmond" (Macmillan), by Mary Van Vorst, a series of impressions of feminine human nature, strung on the thread

of a charming love-story which develops during an automobile tour in Switzerland and France and reaches its climax in a New England garden; "Seffy" (Bobbs-Merrill), by John Luther Long, a little comedy of country manners in a backwoods American district, -very charmingly printed, and illustrated in color by C. D. Williams; "Hearts and Masks" (Bobbs-Merrill), by Harold MacGrath, with illustrations by Harrison Fisher; two new editions of old but famous novels-"Ramona" (Little, Brown), the old favorite of Helen Hunt Jackson, a well-printed and illustrated edition known as the Pasadena edition, and (2) a reprint of "Charlotte Temple," by Susanna Haswell Rowson (Funk & Wagnalls), from the first American edition, 1794, corrected, revised, illustrated in half-tone, with an



SUSANNA HASWELL ROWSON.

(Author of "Charlotte Temple." From an old print.)

historical and biographical introduction, bibliography, and notes, by Francis W. Halsey. This, by the way, is the one-hundredth edition of "Charlotte Temple."

STORIES FOR YOUNG PEOPLE.

Five little volumes, collections of stories retold from St. Nicholas, have been issued by the Century Company in attractive typographical form, with illustrations. These are: "Indian Stories," "Colonial Stories," "Revolutionary Stories," "Civil War Stories," and "Our Holidays." Some names well known in literature are attached to these stories, and in this present form they furnish an excellent and attractive method by which to present history to young people.

The "Oak-Tree Fairy Book" is a new collection of favorite fairy stories, edited by Clifton Johnson and illustrated by Willard Bonte. It bears the imprint of

Messrs. Little, Brown & Co., of Boston.

The same house publishes the works of Louisa M. Alcott, including those famous stories, "Little Men" and "Little Women," with exquisite drawings by Alice Barber Stephens and other popular illustrators of childhood and youth. In the eight volumes making up the set there are eighty-four full-page pictures.

One of the "Children's Favorite Classics" series (Crowell) is F. Jameson Rowbotham's "Tales from Plutarch." These tales are well selected, retold in modern language, and the volume is appropriately illustrated, with a colored frontispiece.

BOOKS OF VARIED INTEREST.

Some of the most charming commentaries on London life and people are to be found in William Dean Howells' latest reminiscent volume, "London Films" (Harpers). This book is made up of a series of connected, although rather rambling, chats in Mr. Howells' happiest vein about his recent extended visit to London. He contrasts, in his own illuminating and humorous style, English and American conditions, particularly in New York and London. Nothing is too insignificant for his charming literary touch,—not even the London cabs or the sights and noises of London streets. The volume is illustrated.

The last four numbers of Elbert Hubbard's "Little Journeys to the Homes of Great Scientists" are devoted

to Linnæus, Huxley, Tyndall, and Wallace.

A very attractive little brochure has been issued by the *Prensa*, the great metropolitan daily of Buenos Ayres, to commemorate the celebration of its thirty-fifth birthday. This brochure, which is in French and handsomely illustrated, contains, besides a description of the broad scale upon which *La Prensa* is conducted and the various enterprises in which it is interested, a number of letters of congratulation from periodicals all over the world.

A new and revised "Commercial Geography" has been prepared for the American Book Company by Mr. Henry Gannett, geographer of the United States Geological Survey; Mr. Karl L. Garrison, principal of the Morgan School, Washington, and Dr. Edwin J. Houston, of Princeton. This volume is prepared in textbook form, and is copiously illegated with maps, dia-

grams, and descriptive illustrations.

A clean-cut, authoritative little exposition is Dr. Harvey B. Bashore's "Sanitation of a Country House" (John Wiley & Sons). Mr. Bashore, it will be remembered, is inspector for the State board of health of Pennsylvania, and has already written a work of reputation on the same subject, "The Outlines of Rural Hygiene." He divides his book into six chapters, entitled: "The Location," "The House," "The Water Supply," "The Disposal of Waste," "The Surroundings," and "The Summer Camp." Suggestive illustrations and diagrams add value to the practical treatment of the subject, which Dr. Bashore has made clear and interesting.

A study of our relations to Haiti, with particular reference to the policy of the present administration, has been written by Mr. A. Fermin, formerly secretary of state finance and commerce of Haiti, and now one of the officials of public instruction of that republic, under the title "President Roosevelt of the United States and the Republic of Haiti." Mr. Fermin counsels his fellow-countrymen that they make friends with the North American republic, because, as he says, "Haiti has nothing whatsoever to fear from President Roosevelt." Mr. Fermin's reading of history would seem to be that of a diplomat and a scholar. His French is that of a Parisian.

A number of the best pictures and comments from "Life" on automobiles and the fun (?) of possessing them have been collected and published in a neat little

volume by T. Y. Crowell.

